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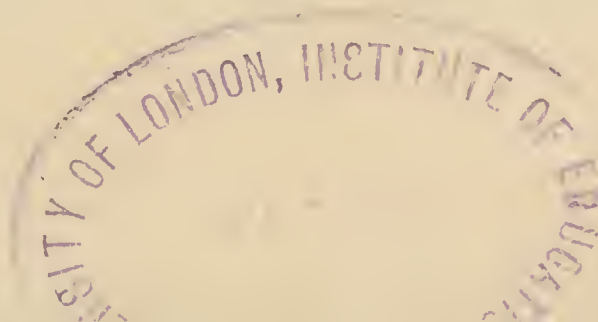
THE NEW ERA

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January to December, 1933

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had on application, free of charge, provided a stamped
and addressed envelope is enclosed.

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FEBRUARY ISSUE

Lord Allen of Hurtwood

STATESMANSHIP—EDUCATION
AND PUBLIC OPINION

ADVENTURES IN EDUCATION—I

Barking

SEX TEACHING

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

IN one of those inspired flashes of English prose which make their way into the dullest of Blue Books, the Committee on the Revision of Modern Languages in the Educational System of Great Britain (1916) explains the lamentable neglect of foreign languages in this country before the War:

Languages are learnt for necessity or profit or intellectual satisfaction. Our necessity was not apparent; our profit was sufficient; the most of us found in other ways such modest intellectual satisfaction as we craved.*

Languages and International Understanding Shades of Bacon and Dr. Johnson! The two of them together could not have bettered this, either in astuteness of observation or in style.

Professor Findlay puts the whole thing more bluntly. He is considering why, though Latin has been taught as a living language throughout the Middle Ages, modern languages have been taught by dull grammarians ever since the Renaissance, and have been reduced to the dry level of dead tongues. 'I assert dogmatically', he concludes, 'that from that day to this, Europe on the whole has not *wanted* to learn foreign languages.'†

The last decade, however, has seen a very general modification of this attitude. As we pointed out last month, a democracy cannot afford to be ill-informed and there is a growing feeling amongst the ordinary citizens of every country that they ought to know what the other side is thinking. It is obvious that if, by the study of foreign languages, an increasing

number of people all over the world will make it their business to get to know at first hand what is being said and done in other countries, we shall be less subject to the virulent nationalistic propaganda that was both one of the prime causes of the last war, the best fuel for its upkeep and, in its aftermath, one of the bitterest barriers to the appeasement of Europe.

Utilitarian Aims in Language Teaching It would be pleasant to be able to claim that a desire for international understanding is the chief factor in the growth of modern language study. We must admit, however, that a far more powerful incentive at present is economic necessity. As the Prince of Wales said, in opening the new buildings of the Taylor Institution at Oxford: 'The ever-growing intercourse between nations and the keen competition in foreign trade have greatly increased the necessity for a better knowledge of modern languages.'

Such practical considerations are tending to increase the study of modern languages, at any rate in this country. In February, 1929, 512 of the 840 'Modern' Schools‡ taught modern languages. It is obvious that the aim of language teaching in these schools is mainly utilitarian and that this fact is likely to modify to a startling degree the teaching methods employed.

A committee was recently appointed by the Board of Education, to consider the problem of education for salesmanship. This Committee

A committee was recently appointed by the Board of Education, to consider the problem of education for salesmanship. This Committee

† i.e. Schools which give a course from the age of 11 plus, with a 'realistic' or practical trend in the later years: Junior Technical, Junior Commercial, Junior Art, Central (selective), Central (non-selective), or Senior. See *Foreign Languages in 'Modern' Schools*. H.M. Stationery Office (1930).

Modern Studies. H.M. Stationery Office. p. 17.

The Psychology of Modern Language Learning. Jnl. of Educational Psychology, November, 1929. p. 324.

gave as its considered opinion 'that to lay undue emphasis upon the literary side of the language seriously damages its educational value, while at the same time virtually destroying its practical value'.§ That is a very strong statement and deserves careful examination by teachers. It raises a problem familiar to all progressive educationists: how much of our present education is too academic? how far are we right in clinging to the past? how can we best prepare children for the future?

Difficulties in Language Teaching

The work of the modern language teacher is becoming increasingly vital and arduous. It might as well be confessed that it is intrinsically difficult work to teach a group of children how to speak and write a language other than their own and one which they probably do not hear spoken outside the walls of their classroom.

Until recently no great effort was made to make living languages live in school. Grammar was taught for its own sake or as an exercise in accuracy, not as the framework of a vital structure, human speech. The vernacular was allowed to intrude at every moment; in fact the process of learning consisted mainly in making a series of translations from and into the mother tongue.

It is now realized that the mother tongue is the greatest obstacle to the learning of a foreign language. Most mistakes, both of pronunciation and construction, are due to its influence, and most innovations in language teaching have been directed towards breaking its tyranny.

Thus the modern teacher of languages makes use of gramophone records and broadcasts—both of which are dealt with in a special section of this issue—to bring the atmosphere of the foreign country into the classroom. Phonetics are carefully taught in many schools, and in the hands of an expert they are very successful in eliminating barbarities of accent.

The Vital Approach to Languages

It is perhaps superfluous to point out that good language teaching depends upon two things. In the first place, children must want to learn—their success will depend upon their own efforts to speak this new tongue. Anything that can whet their desire to learn is useful, exchanging letters with children in other lands, school journeys, the actings of plays, a library of good children's books. And secondly, the teacher must realize what he or she is aiming at with each class. We are not presuming to lay down the law as to how much English the German fifteen-year-old should be able to speak, or how much French his English contemporary should have mastered. But we do presume to say that every teacher of foreign languages should visualize the performance of every class in terms of *mastery of language*, not, as still too often happens, in terms of a certain chapter in a grammar or reading book.

The more vital teaching of languages is a thing to be welcomed from every point of view. The child who, even under the old methods, won through to an appreciation of literatures other than his own, will achieve this more easily under the new. The non-academic child who, under the old methods, learnt next to nothing, should, under the new, learn enough to enable him to exchange simple ideas with a foreigner, either in the course of business or in the course of life. The knowledge of a foreign language is an essentially civilizing influence. To quote again from the Prince of Wales:—

'To learn a new language is to have a new life opened up to us, to know new people and new modes of thought, to look at men and facts from a different point of view. The ultimate aim of teaching and learning modern languages is to give a better understanding of the life, character, ideals and aspirations of other nations. Teachers and students of modern languages may thus become emissaries of international good-will, removing national prejudices, working for an enlightened patriotism, and thus helping to promote the peace of the world.'

§ *Final Report of the Committee on Education for Salesmanship*. (1931). p. 115.

Modern Languages in English Schools

F. M. FORREST

THE Study of Modern Languages has recently been given much prominence. Government Committees have been set up, have considered the problems they were required to investigate. Their findings have, in some cases, emphasized the need for a more widespread knowledge of modern languages. The Departmental Committee on Education for Salesmanship, for instance, was definitely of the opinion that these subjects do not play a large enough part in the education of those who are destined to take up 'commerce' as a career.

Language Study—International Understanding

Although the responsible authorities find it convenient, at times, to ignore the recommendations of such Committees, it is nevertheless a comforting reflection that their pronouncements are not entirely without effect, and have stimulated the study of modern foreign languages. There is perhaps no branch of the school curriculum which has more influence on the destinies of the world. It is only across the bridge of language-learning that we can reach a true understanding of the difficulties which beset other nations. It follows, therefore, that the more people who possess a scholarly knowledge of languages, the better it will be for the world generally.

If a child, while at school, has acquired a love for one foreign tongue, he will not find it difficult to learn others in later life. What is important is that the foundation of all language-learning shall be well and truly laid. The ideal before us should include not only the understanding of the speech, civilization, institutions and literature of the country whose language is being studied, but the establishing of contacts. This is the bridge which will serve to span the gulf which separates us from other nations.

It is not claimed that the disappearance of the barrier of speech will immediately settle all our difficulties. There are other factors which cannot be eliminated and over which a linguist, however eminent, has no control; but a knowledge of even one foreign language can minimize

the dangers which have their origin in misapprehensions.

It is not given to everybody to be a linguist, but the attempt to master the difficulties of one language in addition to one's own, must bring one nearer to the mind of the speaker of that language. For this reason alone, the learning of at least one foreign tongue is an indispensable part of the education of any child.

Languages an Elegant Accomplishment

In the days of long ago, language learning was the prerogative of the few. French was the language of diplomacy, and would-be diplomats were initiated into the intricacies of its syntax. The more fortunate were sent abroad to acquire fluency; the sons of the aristocracy, who set out to make the Grand Tour, were no doubt adepts at speaking French and Italian. Our trade with Flanders must have meant that some, at least, of our merchants were acquainted with the Flemish tongue. The intermarriages of royalty must have done something to spread the understanding of Spanish, German and French—but it is only comparatively recently that the study of languages has become the privilege of the many.

At the Reformation the schools which had been kept by monks and nuns largely disappeared; the needs of the boys were met by the establishment of public Grammar Schools, from which girls were usually excluded. These no doubt received some kind of home education of what we now call a technical character, and it may well be that this was, in reality, more educative than the kind of education then given in the Grammar Schools. Here, we are told, boys often learnt Latin for five years, without being able to read it, and few but the gifted could derive real benefit from the kind of schooling then given. Richard Mulcaster, Master of the Merchant Taylors' School, tells us that though he did not think it advisable for young maidens to attend the public Grammar Schools, yet they should certainly be taught music and languages as well as to read and write. Later a knowledge of languages found its



A Pageant performed by Children at the MacJanet Camp



Julius Cæsar played by Schoolboys in Vienna

way among the list of 'accomplishments' which it was expected that young women in good position, should cultivate. In 1693, a certain Mrs. Makins opened at Tottenham High Cross a 'Ladies' School, where gentlewomen may be instructed in the principles of religion . . . half the time to be employed in gaining the Latin and French tongues; and those that please may learn Greek and Hebrew, the Italian and Spanish, in all of which this gentlewoman hath a competent knowledge'.

The Spread of Language Teaching

In 1865, the Schools Inquiry Commission was appointed to inquire into the conditions of boys' schools, the terms of reference being subsequently extended so as to include girls' schools. When the report of this Inquiry was issued in 1867, it appeared that few schools were doing anything like efficient work, but the Royal Commission on Secondary Education of 1894-95, found that a very great advance had been made. The establishment of Higher-Grade Schools, now called Central Schools, and the great increase in the number of efficient Secondary Schools since the Education Acts of 1902 and 1918 have brought languages within the ken of many for whom such study would previously have been impossible.

Which Language Should be Taught First?

Almost every child in attendance at a school other than a Public Elementary School learns at least one modern foreign language as an essential part of the Secondary School curriculum. In the vast majority of cases, the choice falls on French. It has been objected that there is no valid reason for this choice; some opinions claiming that it would be more suitable for children in the North of England to begin with German—while others favour Spanish as the first modern language.

For children living in the South of England, it is probable that French should continue to hold pride of place; but it might be advisable for schools, in districts where there are many trade associations with Germany, to learn German as their first language. Others again might start with Spanish, though the objection has been raised that the study of this language does not provide enough scope for a thorough

training in linguistics. It is certain that a superficial knowledge of Spanish can easily be acquired in later life, but doubtless the study of this language can, in the hands of a good teacher, be made as powerful an instrument of mental training as any other.

French, with German a poor second, and Spanish a poorer third, are the languages which are usually taught in schools. In 1931, of the 66909 candidates presented for the First School Certificate Examination, some 94 per cent took French papers, while less than 8 per cent took German. A few schools present pupils in Italian, but the number of these is very restricted, both at the School Certificate and Higher Certificate stages. Russian is only taught in exceptional cases. In large towns it should be possible for one at least of the schools in the district to offer Russian as part of the curriculum. Scandinavian languages do not seem to have been attempted in the Secondary Schools.

Language Teaching: Old Style

Methods of teaching modern languages have been in a large measure influenced by the classical tradition, which stressed the importance of grammar and translation. Thirty or forty years ago, the emphasis in French classes was laid, not upon the ability to read the modern language but upon ability to produce a good English rendering—in itself no mean accomplishment. This demand for translation necessitated a slow rate of progress, and it is not to be wondered at, that so few books were read. The defect of this method was that English was allowed to come between the child and his immediate comprehension of the subject-matter. Comparatively little oral work was done, and the question of pronunciation was left to take care of itself. Children were required to translate quite difficult passages of English prose before they had read enough to have acquired any sense of style. The manuals in use at the time were furnished with a wealth of notes, and but little was left to the imagination.

Phonetics and the Direct Method

The influence of the Direct Method and the increase in the interest taken in the study of

phonetics have brought about a great change. Languages are now taught in a more living way, and the emphasis has shifted from translation to the oral use of the language and to immediate comprehension of the spoken and the written word.

The Investigators, who in 1929 reported on the position of French in grant-aided Secondary Schools in England, were of the opinion that 'by writing French, by practice in the manipulation of language material, pupils bring into their linguistic knowledge precision and minute accuracy, and acquire a fuller sense of power and mastery of the language. By speaking French, they notably quicken this sense of power and mastery. They come to realize more readily by this than by any other means, that the language they are learning is a living one, used for the ordinary purposes of real life and as a national tongue. The oral side of language learning can give to the study of French a vivid interest and a peculiar zest, the educative and the cultural advantages of which it would be foolish to ignore'.

They were also convinced that there is nothing more valuable to the child than 'the ability to read French as a living language, with full consciousness of its sound, with that intimate feeling which we have for something we have actually used for ourselves, and with some of the ease and pleasure with which we read English.'

It is, therefore, towards these ends that we ought to turn our attention.

Mechanical Aids to Language Teaching

Languages can be made a living interest to the child in these days of mechanical devices. The thrill of hearing childish voices on a gramophone record is one which will stimulate to further effort. Children learn far more easily from each other than from grown-ups, and this fact should be universally recognized. Talking-films acted and spoken by children and dealing with subjects of vital interest to them, would probably do more to solve the difficulty of language-teaching than anything else. Children at play in the Tuileries gardens, Guignol in the Champs Élysées, a fishing expedition at Granville, a Breton 'Pardon', an

excursion to the Jura, a night spent in one of the Jugend Herberge, 'Colonies de Vacances', etc., would be suitable subjects.

If every school possessed a dictaphone, children of different countries could post spoken messages to each other. These oral letters would be of immense value, and would be of great service in the teaching of pronunciation. Again, why should it not be possible to broadcast the lessons of French and German teachers? The languages of the class-room would then become more of a reality, and the lessons would seem more living than those broadcasted from English stations.

It is highly desirable that teachers of modern languages should explore the possibilities of these mechanical aids, not only nationally but internationally. An attempt at pooling experiences has recently been made by the 'Fédération Internationale des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes', which has established various sub-committees to deal with the developments of broadcasting, gramophone records, and the use of dramatic work in all countries.

The Value of Dramatic Work

It has long been recognized that the acting of plays is one of the most valuable adjuncts to the teaching of Modern Languages. Short scenes can be acted in the form-room, longer plays can be performed at meetings of French circles, and it is even possible to inveigle outsiders into attending performances produced on a more ambitious scale. For some years it has been possible to arrange for French actors and actresses to visit English schools, where audiences of children have applauded the masterpieces of Molière played by actors from the Comédie Française. The formation of the International Students' Drama League will enable school-children to see the works of German, Spanish and Italian authors, acted in the language in which they were written.

Many Anglo-French, Anglo-Spanish and Anglo-German Clubs exist in various parts of the country, and invitations to both plays and lectures are frequently extended to pupils attending neighbouring schools.

The Value of Travel

The practice of taking parties of school-children abroad has increased enormously of recent years. These visits are always successful in arousing interest in the language studied and help to broaden the outlook of the young travellers. The places visited include Denmark, Holland, Belgium, Germany, France, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, Spain and Portugal. Although some teachers prefer to plan their own tours, the School-Journey Association has done much to help people to obtain reduced fares, and reasonably cheap and satisfactory accommodation. Many of the commercial

travel-agencies run tours for schoolchildren, and the latest development is the children's cruise. Foreign travel does much to make us see the other man's point of view, and too much importance cannot be laid upon this side of the teaching of modern foreign languages.

In conclusion, I should like to stress the importance of so ordering our teaching of foreign languages, that they may become an instrument of real culture and a means of such *rapprochement* that all will come to see with Pope—that:

'We are but parts of one stupendous whole
Whose body Nature is, and God, the soul.'

Modern Languages in an International School

JOSÉ CASTILLEJO

THE experiment of a Spanish International School, now being made in Madrid, is not confined to the teaching of foreign languages. It includes the larger problem of education ranging from the Kindergarten to the University. Its aim is two-fold: to find the studies and the methods which are most suitable for each age, and to adapt the school to the wider background of the life of to-day.

Language Learning in Childhood

Modern cosmopolitan life has to be combined with the demands of a national education. This cannot be done by means of the teaching of history, but only by making the child live, from the earliest age, in an uninterrupted contact with both the culture of other nations and that of his native land.

The primary vehicle for such contact is to be found in foreign languages. Unfortunately, these are usually taught at the most unsuitable age, from eleven to fourteen years, when the child is too old to learn them instinctively and by imitation, and too immature to take a genuine interest in philology.

Another error, arising probably from this mistaken choice, is the belief that it is not possible to begin the study of several languages

at the same time, one having to be more or less mastered before the other is begun. The root of this prejudice lies in the fact that when languages are taught by means of grammar and logical rules, children are bewildered if they have to handle several simultaneously; especially from the age of ten and onwards, when their minds are beginning to work logically.

While the study of living languages is thus crowded into the Secondary School curriculum, the period of early childhood is, to a large extent, wasted. In fact, teachers do not know what to do with children between the ages of three and eight. The solution of granting them complete liberty may be at the bottom an honest confession of impotence. The child lives in a world apart from the teacher. By handling pupils as little men, the teacher loses the treasure of childhood, which is much more than a state of plasticity: it is the brief period, and the only one, in which human nature evolves certain basic capacities.

The Spanish International School was founded with the purpose of utilizing to the utmost the age in which children possess instinct, power of imitation and a strange sharpness of perception, all of which are gradually weakened as the child approaches puberty. Instead of hastening or anticipating the advent of reason,



Playground: Spanish International School

by making pupils learn with great effort logical truths which they could master easily a few months later, the Spanish International School seeks to bring together in these early years the teaching of all those things which a child learns better than an adolescent. Chief among these is language, in the broader sense of the word, the language of line and relief (drawing and modeling), the language of sound (music) and articulate language (the mother tongue and the foreign one).

But languages at this age cannot form in themselves material for teaching. They are rather a means of communication which the child assimilates, by a peculiar tentative process, not in parts, analytically, or according to rules, but synthetically, as a complex of vocabulary, syntax, rhythm, intonation and gesture.

Learning Languages Simultaneously

The Spanish International School receives boys and girls between the ages of three and five, and entrusts them to Spanish, English, French and German teachers. All the children receive instruction daily in the mother tongue, and at least two foreign languages. With a few, teaching in four languages has been introduced. Intuitive materials (objects, pictures, drawings, toys) are employed, as well as songs, handwork and games.

No teacher is permitted to use any language but her own in the classroom, the playground, or in the dining-room. The result is that the children do not mix the various languages. They identify them with the persons who speak them. The accumulation of several neither disturbs nor overloads the mind of the child, because to him they are not multiple. He does not distinguish them, nor pit one against the other; he does not even notice differences between them. A child of five years could not tell his mother whether his songs were in French or English. His only explanation was: 'This one is the brown-haired teacher's and this one is the fair-haired teacher's.'

The child retains a part of the mass of words he hears regardless of the language to which they belong. The limit is quantitative, not qualitative. Consequently, if a child is to learn in his early age three languages, it is better to give them to him all at once rather than one after the other.

On the other hand it is a mistake to suppose that a little child ought to be taught only what he is capable of understanding: the child learns before he comprehends. He first becomes familiar with the sounds of words and enjoys repeating them. Then he begins to understand their significance in a process of gradual approximation as he hears them used again and again.

Language as a Living Unity

This being so, the method cannot be to present the child with a series of words according to their supposed difficulty, but to put before him the language as it is normally and spontaneously used, as a living unity. When he begins to read, the books graduated according to the frequency of words are most useful. Towards seven years a syntactical influence of one language on another in some of the children can be noted.

But the school has realized that in order to place such a burden on the children certain intensifications and compensations have to be made. The size of each class has been limited to a maximum of fifteen pupils. The younger these are the greater is their need of individual attention. The school deprecates precocity as a waste of specific child capacities, and postpones

what can be acquired more rapidly at a more mature age. It eliminates from the curriculum all the information and experience that modern life offers and which the radio, the cinema and the press bring to us. That is, the school is dedicated to the formation of character, to the training of aptitudes peculiar to each age, and to the acquirement of those experiences which cannot be sought elsewhere. Among these are languages.

Furthermore, it has been necessary to make a fundamental distinction between the mother tongue and foreign languages. The former the child should possess with entire correctness and flexibility as it is destined to be the vehicle of thought and information. It is desirable that children understand the latter and read them, but it is not considered essential that they speak or write them correctly. The school prefers that the child should master his own language entirely and understand three others, and, later, that he should speak two fluently. In other words, instruction is plurilingual, but bilingualism of thought is avoided.

The experiment is not confined to the elementary school period, but is continued through to the age of seventeen, the time for entrance to the University.

Up to the age of ten, the instruction given in foreign languages is encyclopædic in character, so that the child may acquire an adequate vocabulary and may hear and read a variety of material. But from that age the foreign teachers give instruction in geography, history, science, mathematics and literature and thus correlate their work with that which is being given in the mother tongue.

Between the ages of fourteen and seventeen it is planned to send homogeneous groups of pupils to schools in France, England and Germany, accompanied by Spanish teachers, so that the training of their minds shall be in no way interrupted by their residence abroad. Young persons leaving their country without that precaution forget one language while they learn another, and, having to begin the latter from an elementary level, step backwards in a sort of retrogressive process.

Latin and the Direct Method

The Spanish International School was opened four years ago, and the children of the top form are now eleven and understand three languages. According to a principle established by the school, languages which were not learned between four and ten years of age are to be left to be taught later by grammatical methods between the ages of fourteen and seventeen. This is also the case with Latin, for a dead language cannot be taught in the same manner as a living one. The school is now however testing how far the child's memory and instinct can be taken advantage of for the learning, by direct method, of a sufficient amount of Latin to permit him later to study its grammar, instead of having to struggle with the rules of an unfamiliar language. This experiment in Latin is in its infancy, and no conclusions can be drawn from it at present.

The school is intended to be highly selective. Some children lack language capacity, but they possess other gifts. Programmes of the Gary type and adaptations of the Dalton Plan from the age of ten, are expected to offer the best solution. So far the children of ten and eleven years have been sent to take examinations in other schools, and this test has enabled us to verify that they are not in the least retarded compared with children of the same age, who have received twice the number of hours of



Spanish International School

teaching in the mother tongue. This may be attributed to two causes, the small number in the classes, and the stimulating effect of a plurality of languages on the child's mind.

It has been found also that the simultaneous learning of three languages is for the children proportionately easier than the study of only two.

An Elastic Curriculum

The subject matter taught in the Spanish International School is the usual curriculum of the elementary and secondary school, but each branch of knowledge is introduced only when the child is likely to need it as an instrument for further advancement. We avoid also the error of seeking to distribute subjects by order of difficulty according to the judgment of the teachers, because things which are difficult for an adult may be easy for a child who almost always likes to advance by leaps and bounds and select his studies according to his own desire. Therefore, a full and living reality has to be put within his reach, not a fragment or a simplification.

The Spanish International School seeks to apply the same system that is employed for languages to other studies, mathematics, natural science, physics, geography, history, etc. The teaching of history from the point of view of Peace has been treated in the most radical and perhaps most efficient way. Instead of using revised and colourless text-books, we have allowed the child to receive, through contact with teachers from different countries, historical versions, divergent perhaps, and even contradictory. Each child may draw afterwards his own conclusions. Peace cannot be attained by ignoring hatred, but rather by knowing it and suffering it.

Exchanges—Pupils and Teachers

The Spanish International School has this year 180 boys and girls in forms of fifteen pupils arranged by age and preparation. To effect a different grouping according to their capacity in each tongue, or subject, classes in each language are held simultaneously for at least three distinct forms.

For the non-Spanish children, when their number permits it, special classes should be

formed in order to give their mother tongue the preference as the formative instrument, as is done in the case of Spanish for Spanish children.

In its full development the Spanish International School will therefore consist of four schools: Spanish, English, German and French. Each one of them should offer teaching suitable both for their nationals and for international contact for the others. If in France, England, and Germany similar schools could be founded, the exchange of students and teachers could be effected, and the first real international teaching would have its beginning.

This evolution will depend on the co-operation offered by other countries, and on the result of the experiment in Madrid, which will be estimated more closely when the first pupils reach the age for the University. But with or without international co-operation the Spanish co-operative and non-commercial Association which has undertaken this experiment in Madrid is determined to carry it on for Spanish children until the complete development of the school permits us to draw definite conclusions.

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English as a World Language, and the Technique of Teaching It

MICHAEL WEST

THERE has never been greater need than at present for such mutual understanding as is promoted by the study of each other's languages; but more than this is needed. It is not enough for the Frenchman and the German to understand each other if they misunderstand the rest of the world. There is need of World Consciousness.

Now the language which comes nearest to being a language of world-consciousness is English, for it is the language most widely spoken and most widely studied in the whole world. Moreover (unlike other languages) it is *not* a national language; it reflects no one political and social outlook; it is the language of America as well as of England, of a large part of Africa, of commercial and intellectual intercourse in India, China, and most of the tropical and semi-tropical world. It reflects the thoughts and aspirations of the whole of mankind.

The part of the world in which English is, on the whole, least studied as a second language is Europe; but of late years it has tended to gain ground. On the other hand, whereas in these difficult times one would expect to find an increased urge towards modern language study, actually the tendency is rather in the opposite direction; there are many vigorous attempts to decrease the time allotted to it. The reason for this is two-fold. It is argued that the time already devoted to modern languages seems to have achieved very disappointing results, and so might be better spent otherwise. Further, the increased complexity of modern life yields an increased variety of subjects demanding inclusion in the curriculum, and time tends to be whittled off modern language study in order to make room for these.

Paradoxically enough, it is just this unfavourable combination of circumstances which offers to the English language a greater opportunity of world-diffusion than ever before. English is the easiest of all European languages, and, if we can but remove three obstacles to its

teaching (discussed below), it will become obvious to every foreign Minister of Education and his public that English is the one and only foreign language which can possibly yield any worth-while return to the pupil in the diminishing time now allotted to modern language study.

Obstacles to Teaching English—Spelling

(1) The first obstacle is English Spelling. We do not propose to discuss this here; but there is one point to which we would like to draw attention. Whatever system of simplified English spelling be adopted in foreign schools, there is no question of reprinting the whole of English literature in it; nor is there any need, for the difficulty of irregular spelling lies, not in the reading but in the writing of it. The child must necessarily read English literature printed as it is, but, when he writes, he may prefer to write in simplified spelling, or in shorthand. The main burden of reading this simplified script will fall on English and American shoulders, which are well able to bear it; for it is far easier to read phonetic script than to read a foreign language or employ a foreign correspondent. Why therefore are the inventors of simplified spellings so chary of deviating from the normal for fear of offending English and American eyes? Let them rather consider the brains of their own pupils, and make the system as simple as possible, a system in which one sign represents always one and the same sound (an accent being perhaps used to neutralize the unstressed vowel). The only limit to extreme simplification is the requirement that the system should be capable of being written on a continental typewriter. (Let the typewriter manufacturers get busy on this problem.)

Obstacles to Teaching English—Vocabulary

(2) The second obstacle is Vocabulary. English has the largest vocabulary of any language. This does not mean that the pupil is

required to learn it all. We must, however, determine how much he is to be required to learn. What usually happens is that he learns far too many words, but never *masters* a *vocabulary*. Learning words is not enough; they must be mastered, overpractised so much that they leap forward of themselves without having to be fetched. A set of words, however large, is not a vocabulary; 10,000 nouns do not make a vocabulary. A vocabulary is a set of words capable of working together to express ideas, a set of words adequate to express any ordinary idea which the learner wants to express, and to give the meaning of any technical term which he does not happen to know. The foreign pupil learns some words and some grammar; then he learns more words and more grammar—and so on. He never stands still and makes a plateau, speaking continuously within an adequate vocabulary until he possesses mastery, until he is absolutely fluent and effective at that level. Before the minimum adequate vocabulary is mastered the learner cannot really talk at all: after it has been mastered he may go on to learn more words so as to get greater elegance, and then make a second mastery-plateau; or he may decide to stand still on the first plateau, adding only the few technical terms needed for his special requirements.—That is what he ought to do; but he never does it.

One reason why the foreign pupil does not do this is that he does not realize the need of doing it: he does not realize the need of mastery within a limited vocabulary. The other reason is that he cannot do it; his textbook does not enable him to do it; it does not attempt to build up a minimum adequate vocabulary, nor at any stage does it indicate that the vocabulary has now become adequate for 'plateau' work aiming at mastery.

The most important unsolved problem in modern language teaching is the Nature and Size of the Minimum Adequate Vocabulary. For a large proportion of the pupils never get any further; indeed, under present conditions, very few get so far; and, if they do not get so far, they get nothing worth while out of all the labour they have expended.

Actually the vast majority of the pupils acquire a set of words of such number as

ought to constitute an adequate vocabulary, and yield the power of fluent and easy speech; but the words are ill-selected (or not selected at all); they do not work together; there is waste; and there are gaps; and no speech is possible within them—not even if they were used by a native.

There are various methods of selecting a vocabulary:—

(i) *The Method of Prediction*. This is the commonest, and the worst, method. The teacher tries to predict what sort of thing his pupils will talk about, e.g. they will buy food, eat, wear clothes, travel. Hence he introduces words connected with those subjects. In the first place, most of the predictions are bound to be wrong; for what is true of one child is not true of all the thirty children in the class; and when the textbook-writer dares to predict for all the classes of a whole school system, his chances of correctness are very faint indeed. Moreover, even when the predictions prove correct in the long run, they come true only after so long an interval that the child has forgotten the words by then, and might better have deferred learning them until the actual need arose. There is a third objection, the most fundamental one—the words in a language may be roughly classified in two groups: (a) those that we talk *with*, and (b) those that we talk *about*. It is not our business (and it is impossible) to predict what things the child will talk about; and anyhow it is useless for him to know the names of things to talk about unless he *can* talk. Our first business is to teach the child to talk. In this process we must use some words which we talk *about*; but they should be as few as possible. When the child can talk, he will soon enough pick up, of his own initiative, the names of the things he wants to talk about.

(ii) *The Method of Word-Frequency*. This is a perfectly sound method of selecting a *reading* vocabulary, for the most frequent words are the words we are most likely to meet in reading; but they are not necessarily the most useful for us in speech. Thus among the 1,000 most frequent words there are many synonyms which are unnecessary in speech, but there is not a complete set of numerals nor the names of all the months, which are most necessary.

(iii) *The Method of Reduction*. The practical technique of this process is rather complicated and laborious; the general principle of it is, however, very simple. We require a vocabulary which is complete in itself, one whose words will work together to express ideas. We therefore take a vocabulary which is *known* to be complete and adequate, e.g., the first 4,000 or 5,000 words of a frequency list. We test it to see that it is capable of expressing any ordinary idea, and then proceed to reduce its size (e.g., to 1,000) by eliminating all synonyms, duplicates and less useful words. Finally we check it to ensure that all its sets of words are complete (e.g., a complete set of numbers, colours, directions, etc.).

There are certain important differences between the aim and technique of vocabulary-selection for the child, and for the adult. In this connection Basic English is of great interest. We are not here concerned with the possibility of applying 'Basic English' to the teaching of children—that would be a larger problem—but with the special applicability of its present form to the adult learner who desires to obtain as quickly and easily as possible the power of merely making himself understood.

Vocabularies for the Child

There are three points which are specially important in the construction of a vocabulary for the use of a child. The converse of each of these three points is of significance in regard to the technique of Basic English. In the first place, when the child learns a foreign language (or even his own mother-tongue), he acquires the words first in their limited everyday meaning. (Thus he learns *Porte*=door, and *Prendre*=to take.) He tends to learn very few idioms at first, such only as are closely connected with the every-day meaning of the word. Later, as his command of the language increases, he gradually extends the meanings of the words learnt at an earlier stage, and also increases the variety of their idiomatic usage. (Thus at a much later date he learns *Porte*=the eye of a hook, and such idioms as *A tout prendre* and *Se prendre de vin*.) This is the normal and healthy procedure; but one of the commonest causes of inaccuracy in speaking

a foreign language is an attempt to run before one can walk—to stretch the meanings of words and to use idioms prematurely. For this reason it is generally agreed that in a vocabulary intended for the early stages of language study by children meanings should be 'unstretched' and idioms should be few.

Secondly, we have to observe an important characteristic of the child as a language-learner. Rote-memory increases rapidly up to the age of twelve, more slowly up to puberty, but in adult life it shows a decline. Hence the child, as contrasted with the adult, finds little difficulty in acquiring new words; but he is definitely the inferior of the adult in respect of power to see connections between things already learnt (e.g., how the words come to mean what they do in some far-fetched idiom). For this reason, in teaching a child, we prefer to teach new words rather than to stretch old ones, and we should never think of using distant idioms of known words as a means for economizing the rote memory effort of learning a new one.

The third point is a matter of practical schoolmastering. When a child starts to study a foreign language, we never know how far he is going to go. He may go no further than the first stage—or he may go right through to a perfect mastery of the language. We cannot assume that he *will* go further than the first stage (although the fault of most language courses is that they do assume this), and we must therefore provide in the first stage something complete and adequate in itself. On the other hand, we cannot assume that he will *not* go further: we must therefore, in the first stage, be careful to give two things:—

(a) a sound and accurate foundation—a set of units of speech which will offer the least possible opportunity for error.

(b) a field of fruitful roots—a set of units which are not 'dead ends' but things which are likely to develop and expand in respect of idiom and meaning if the child goes on to learn more of the language.

Vocabularies for the Adult

These three points are very obvious; but what has not been so obvious (until it was pointed out by Basic English) is the converse of

these points. The meaning will be clear if we take a concrete example. In spite of my mature age I should very much like to visit Russia and attempt to discover for myself what really is happening there. To master sufficient Russian for this purpose would, in the ordinary way, be a very serious undertaking. Now I want to learn Russian as lightly and easily as possible. I am not so good at remembering names and words as I used to be. I do not mind if I am not always strictly correct so long as I am intelligible.

The Adult Language Student

Here we have a typical adult language-student—weak in rote-memory, but probably fairly good at ‘seeing connections’, willing to risk some inaccuracy, not seriously intending to go further than the first stage of minimum adequacy. How can that first stage be cut down to the very lowest limit? How can we give him what he wants with the least possible strain on his rote-memory?

This result may be achieved by doing just those things which *must not* be done in the case of the child—by early stretching of meanings and early development of idioms—by not introducing a new word if any idiom or stretching of a word already known will serve.

To a child an idiom is a dead twig, whereas a new word is valuable in itself, and will be more so when he is ready for the development of idioms. To a child a new word is not any harder to learn than a new idiom: it may even be easier. On the other hand the new idiom is far more tricky and dangerous to a child than to an adult, for the child is far more likely to make a mistake and confuse, for example, ‘to do in’ with ‘to do down’ or ‘*prendre du vin*’ with ‘*se prendre de vin*’; and mistakes are a serious matter to him: he must not go planting weeds in his garden in the spring! To the adult, mistakes in idiom are far less likely, and are far less serious. As for the new word being more ‘valuable in the long run’, the adult will have no ‘long run’; all he wants is to become intelligible now.

This then is where Basic English comes in: it takes a very elastic vocabulary and gets the last inch of stretch out of it, and so makes a system ideally suited to adult learning.

We come to the third obstacle: it is a thing which makes English difficult to teach.

Obstacles to Teaching English—Grammar

All the textbooks in all the main modern languages are built on very much the same model. They start off with some sections on phonetics, then go on to a set of lessons of the Direct Method type; and then they settle down to a standard routine:—a point of grammar is explained, then illustrated, and exercised. Our point is that the real backbone of the book, the arrangement, the Table of Contents, is grammar.

Now if we present the teacher, or textbook-writer, with a language like English which has almost no grammar, he is ‘flummoxed’; he has got no backbone round which to build his course. What then is he to do? Invent grammar? That indeed is what he does. The average Englishman asked to write a book of English grammar for the foreigner might be hard put to it to fill fifty pages. Let him go to the pedagogic museum in Paris and he will see what can be done in that line! After viewing the textbooks there collected one can only express admiration for the French children who succeed in learning English.

This is the difficulty of teaching English, that the language does not suit itself to this ordinary and customary grammatical technique. We do not believe that *any* language is better for being taught on a ‘grammatical backbone’. We believe that the correct basis for every language course is a minimum adequate vocabulary, and that the grammar should be introduced merely as required (and largely unsystematically) in order to enable the learner to make use of his vocabulary as he gets it. Man cannot serve two masters; one can systematize a course as regards grammar—but, if so, one desystematizes the vocabulary, and words are brought in because they illustrate the grammar. Or one may systematize the vocabulary; if so, the grammar comes in unsystematically, just as it is called for by the words; and that, we believe, is the right way. But the other, systematized grammar, is the usual way, and with most languages it yields results of a sort (at the cost of much wasted effort in learning useless words and failure to assimilate grammar because of the lack of a

felt need for it). In the case of English this way yields no results, because there is no English grammar to systematize: English is essentially unsystematic.

English—Easy to Learn, Difficult to Teach

We have brought the reader to the edge of unexplored territory. No language course (except perhaps in pure reading) has yet been successfully constructed on the basis of a selected minimum adequate vocabulary, rather than on a grammatical basis. Until that is done, English will remain (paradoxically) an easy language which is difficult to teach. But when that is done, it will not merely render easier the learning of English, it will tend also to

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react upon the teaching-methods of other languages. We shall have French and German courses setting out to teach a certain adequate vocabulary, courses in which the grammar is introduced as needed in order to enable the child to use his vocabulary, courses with a fixed and definite vocabulary-goal, courses which, when they reach that goal, say:—‘Stop here! You don’t need any more new words. Practise those you have got until you have mastered them. And, when you have done that, you will find that you can speak the language’.

When that comes it will reduce the time-cost and increase the efficiency of modern language teaching—very considerably.

Basic English as an International Language

C. K. OGDEN

WE can no longer afford to regard the creation of an artificial language as a pastime for theorists. The growing dependence of nations upon one another for their intellectual, political, and economic welfare has made the provision of some universal auxiliary medium a practical issue of the utmost importance. Now the first condition of a practical international language is that it must offer sufficient inducement to get people to learn it. No artificially constructed language, however simple, can hope to do this because, starting with a zero distribution, it has to make its converts before acquiring the status which might win their allegiance. The objection is one that applies equally to the revival of a dead language.

Clearly, then, the greatest hope of success lies in the adoption for international purposes of some living tongue. But which of the 1,500 existing languages shall we employ? The answer, fortunately, is one which cannot seriously be questioned by any one who views the situation without prejudice. English is now the natural or administrative language of more than 500,000,000 people. It has recently been made compulsory in the school systems of

countries as culturally different as Japan, the Argentine, and Estonia. It is the chief language of the talkies and is used by over 500 Radio stations. Moreover, its analytic tendency, emphasized by American influences, admirably fits it for international use. These facts indicate that while the linguistic experts have been wrangling about ideal constructions, universal English has quietly been establishing itself. But though the penetration of English is slowly solving the international language problem, the solution would be a reluctant and unsatisfactory one if every foreigner were compelled to learn our language without abridgment or simplification. English is, comparatively speaking, a simple language, but a thorough knowledge of its vocabulary and structure can only be acquired by the average learner after some years of study. If it is to play the rôle of auxiliary language successfully a simplified form must be developed for the purpose.

The Chief Features of Basic English

Basic English is this desired simpler form: for in it 850 words will do the work of 20,000 while preserving normal idiom and avoiding the peculiarities of pidgin speech. The 850

words are basic in the sense that they provide the widest range of substitutes for other words together with a minimum inventory of common objects. These, and some fifty terms which are already international (such as 'radio' and 'hotel'), can be memorized in less than thirty hours by a learner of average ability, and a month or two's work with a graded course like that provided in the *A B C* will give complete fluency in the system.

The chief feature of the grammatical simplification is the verb elimination, which the analytic structure of English has made possible. The verb is not a separate part of speech but a contraction of several. It results from the fusion of one or more parts of speech with an 'operator'. Thus *ascend* is the equivalent of 'go up', which is composed of an operator and an adverb or preposition, *abbreviate* (make shorter) joins an operator to an adjective, while *dress* (put clothes on) combines the operator with an adverb and a noun. In every instance it will be seen that it is only by virtue of the operator (*make, go, put, etc.*) that the verb appears to have a unique grammatical function. Most simple verbs are formed by the marriage of an operation with a direction, and in English the analytic alternative ('go in' for *enter*, 'go forward' for *advance*, and so on) has been made available through centuries of inflectional disintegration. Happily the fundamental physical operations and spatial directions are few in number. Eighteen operators, including the necessary auxiliaries, and twenty-one prepositions or directives, enable Basic to dispense with the whole verbal galaxy. The grammatical rules have been reduced to a minimum. They are five in number and cover the formation of plurals, adverbs, comparatives, compound words, and the uniform derivatives of 300 of the nouns.

Basic has a sounder claim to grammatical simplicity than have the constructed languages which have tried to hold the international field. The attempt to create a semi-artificial medium, based on a group of closely related European roots, was an interesting experiment. But it was initiated in an age when the Eastern problem could still be conveniently shelved. To-day, Africa and the East are in the foreground of our picture, and the needs of Western Europe can

no longer be allowed to form the sole criterion for an auxiliary language. Basic is specially designed to meet the requirements of Eastern peoples whose languages contain nothing analogous to the verb system of the West, and for whom therefore the chief difficulty in mastering a European tongue is to grasp the linguistic notion of a verb.

The Use of Idioms in Basic English

It may be feared that Basic lets verbs out by the front door only to admit idioms by the back. It has been found, however, after a prolonged and exhaustive sifting of material, that, of all the possible idiomatic phrases which might be made with the Basic words, only 250 are in any sense necessary. Even among these there are very few which cannot be learnt as intelligible metaphorical uses. Two or three compounds, of which the most important are *without, well-off, and away*, and a few phrases like *put up with* and *make out* (ascertain) are the only items which need be presented as new words. All the rest are reasonable extensions: *put off a meeting, open to argument*, and so on.

One of the most frequent complaints heard from foreigners learning English is that the orthography presents unnecessary difficulty. Many who favour English as a world-language have stressed the need for phonetic-spelling reform and even made it the main feature of their system. In Basic, however, the English disregard of phonetics ceases to be a bogey. Irregular spelling is not a grave drawback in a vocabulary consisting of only 850 words, and it may actually be a mnemonic advantage if the learner has a well-developed visual memory. In the Basic system every word must be learnt orally as well as visually, and for this purpose a series of gramophone records has been made by Mr. Lloyd James, linguistic adviser to the B.B.C., which give the pronunciation of every word in the Basic list.

The 850 general Basic words are completely adequate for ordinary conversation, but they cannot be expected to cover the whole range of technicalities with which the specialist deals. The addition, however, of 100 words required for general science, and 50 for a particular science, provides a total of 1,000 by means of which any scientific congress or periodical can

also achieve internationalism. Scientific terminology, together with the relevant formulæ and notations, are themselves international above a certain level, and Basic provides the necessary link with the language of everyday life. Examples of translations dealing with chemistry, physics and biology, together with a general discussion of the problems involved, will be found in *Basic English Applied (Science)*. Other technical fields are being similarly dealt with.

Basic English as a Literary Medium

Translations of a more general kind are also available, which will serve both to satisfy the curious that books can be written with reasonable facility in this abbreviated language and to give the learner the practice he requires. Of these, *International Talks*, a translation of some articles on international politics by Wickham Steed, is particularly instructive because the original text and the Basic version are printed side by side to facilitate comparison. Specimen dialogues are given in *The Basic Traveller* and *Brighter Basic*.

It is no part of the function of a world auxiliary language to offer a distinguished literary medium and it is nowhere suggested that Basic should be used as the stimulus to æsthetic experience. But it is natural for those who love the English language to be apprehensive about the possible debasement of their tongue. The translation of Leonhard Frank's *Carl and Anna*, and the *Gold Insect*, a Basic version of Edgar Allen Poe's story, 'The Gold Bug,' should serve to allay such fears. In both these books a new stylistic quality has been achieved by the rigid economy of words, which

may be held by some to present a wholesome antidote to the prevalent verbosity. But whatever the literary merits or limitations of Basic, experience shows that for the expression and interchange of ideas, whether in a written or a spoken form, it is both a lucid and an adequate medium. And though the technique might be expected to result in long-winded disquisitions, Basic translations have been found, on an average, to be only about 5 per cent longer than their originals.

Basic English as an International Language

Champions of the artificial language movement have long made capital out of the plea that no natural language could survive the national jealousy which would be roused by the attempt to confer international status upon it. Basic English has nothing to fear from this argument. The popularity achieved by English in all quarters of the globe contradicts the assumption; and the severely practical considerations which have governed the development of Basic remove it still further from suspicion. Though the system is British in origin, it has enthusiastic support abroad, and the signatures to the Basic English Manifesto include many distinguished names from Japan, China, Germany, Czechoslovakia and other countries. In the East, in Russia and in the smaller countries of Europe, the necessity of learning some second language has long been recognized as too urgent to admit of prejudice. Opposition to a living language is therefore practically confined to the larger European nations. It represents a waning tradition, which the progress of Basic English will bring one stage nearer to extinction.

The reader who wishes for a fuller account of Basic than it is possible to give in the space of a short article will find a complete outline of the system in *Basic English*, which should be read in conjunction with *The Basic Words*. The arguments for an international language in general and Basic English in particular are set forth in *Debabelization*. These books may be had (price 2s. 6d.) from the Orthological Institute, 10 King's Parade, Cambridge.

Notes on Modern Language Teaching in Different Countries

Compiled from answers to a questionnaire sent to Directors of Education and other authorities in different parts of the world

Last June, a questionnaire was sent to Directors of Education and Teachers of Modern Languages in an attempt to determine what compulsory foreign languages are taught, at what stages teaching begins and what methods are used. Although we have received a large number of most detailed and interesting replies, some answers have not yet reached us—a further proof of how little people understand the importance of proper information, even on a subject

so fraught with consequences to international understanding.

Tabulation would therefore not be valuable at present as the results are incomplete, but we hope to be able to publish tables in a later *New Era* or at any rate to furnish copies to all those who desire them. In the meantime, we are publishing in this issue only some notes on three salient points, listing answers from ten countries in different parts of the world.



ARGENTINE

Compulsory foreign languages

Elementary Schools: none
Secondary Schools: French and English

Amount of time allotted to the study

English: 3 hours per week for 3 years

Method

The Direct and other modern methods

AUSTRIA

Compulsory foreign languages

Elementary Schools: none
Secondary Schools, i.e.:
Realschule: French and English
Realgymnasium: Latin with French or English
Gymnasium: Latin and Greek
A Slavonic language is taught in a few schools

Amount of time allotted to the study

Either 7 or 4 years of English according to whether it is the first or second foreign language learnt. In Realschule and Realgymnasium, where English is the first language, 4 or 5 hours are allotted per week

Method

Usually the Direct Method is used. In certain schools formal grammar is introduced in the first year

BULGARIA

Compulsory foreign languages

Elementary Schools: none
Secondary Schools: French, German and later, Russian
Classical High Schools: Latin and Greek

Amount of time allotted to the study

2 to 4 hours per week for 6 years

Method

Dependent on teacher's training

CUBA

Compulsory foreign languages

Elementary Schools: French
Secondary Schools: French and English

Amount of time allotted to the study

3 hours per week for 2 years

Method

Little oral work. Grammar considered essential

DENMARK

Compulsory foreign language

Elementary Schools: either English or German
Secondary Schools: English, German, French, Swedish

Amount of time allotted to the study

Elementary Schools: 1 year
Secondary Schools: regular lessons for 7 years

Method

A combination of the Direct Method with grammar and vocabulary. Phonetics much in use

ESTHONIA

Compulsory foreign languages

Elementary Schools: none
Secondary Schools: English and German (in some schools, French and Russian)

Amount of time allotted to the study

2 to 4 lessons per week for 3 or 4 years

Method

No particulars given

GERMANY

Compulsory foreign languages

Elementary Schools: none, though courses are sometimes arranged for gifted pupils, as well as for those attending the compulsory continuation classes after they have left school

Mittelschule: English

Realgymnasium and

Reformrealgymnasium: Latin, with English and French

Gymnasium: Latin, Greek and French

There is, however, a definite attempt afoot to put the teaching of French on an exact parity with the teaching of English in all German schools, in spite of the fact that English is a much easier language for German children to learn and is of more use commercially

Amount of time allotted to study

English: 4 to 5 hours per week in the first year
5 hours per week from second to sixth year

No statistics have been received concerning the other compulsory languages

Method

The Direct Method is used, but no longer in its entirety. It has been replaced by the 'Vermittelnde Methode' which merges the earlier analytical and modern synthetic methods. Grammatical knowledge is considered essential

JAPAN

Compulsory foreign languages

Elementary Schools: none

Secondary Schools: English

Amount of time allotted to the study

4 to 5 hours a week

Method

Direct Method very little used, grammar introduced in third year

NORWAY

Compulsory foreign languages

Elementary Schools: none (English and German optional)

Secondary Schools: German, English, French (Latin in addition in Gymnasium)

Amount of time allotted to the study

English: 5 to 6 years

German: „ „

French: 2 to 3 „

Method

Direct is increasingly used, great stress being laid on phonetics. Grammar taught inductively

SWEDEN

Compulsory foreign languages

Elementary Schools: none (German and English optional)

Secondary Schools: German, English and French, and either Norwegian or Danish for classical side, also Latin

Amount of time allotted to study

German, 5 years (and 2 optional)

English, 4 „ („ 2 „)

French, 3 „ („ 2 „)

With an average of 4 hours per week

Method

Direct Method in modified form, with a good deal of phonetics and oral work. Formal grammar introduced in first year

Answers were also received from:—Assam, Baluchistan, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay Presidency, Burma, Canada, Central Provinces, Delhi (Ajmer-Merwara), Dutch East Indies, England, Finland, India, Kenya, Malaya, New Zealand, North-West Frontier Province, Nyasaland, Orange Free State, Panama, Punjab, Queensland, Salvador, S. Australia, Tasmania, Uganda, United Provinces, Victoria, Western Australia, Zanzibar.

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AIDS TO MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

The Gramophone in the Teaching of Modern Languages

THE use of the gramophone in the teaching of modern languages is no longer a matter for theory or conjecture, but has passed into ordinary class-room practice. Those who oppose its use grow fewer every day, and it may be said that they are less of a danger than those who uphold it blindly, by which I mean, those who would make the gramophone the kernel of language teaching. In this brief note I propose to consider the gramophone only as a valuable adjunct to the living teacher. Having thus limited its rôle, let us try to define briefly its pedagogical use.

Two sorts of conditions are necessary if the gramophone is to do all that may be expected of it :

(i) *Material Conditions*. First it is essential to use a good instrument, which does not necessarily mean an expensive one. Reliable instruments at moderate cost are now obtainable in all countries. Next, the gramophone must be handled humanely—needles suitable to each record must be used and used only once. Most of the difficulties encountered by teachers in the use of the gramophone arise from the neglect of these essential details.

(ii) *Pedagogic Conditions*. In order to obtain the best results, the records must be used with discretion and at the right moment. Introduced into a lesson without proper forethought and preparation, they can only be a cause of disorder or a waste of time. The gramophone should not be used for more than a few minutes at a time, and no one record should be played until it is stale.

The Judicious Use of Records

It will not be forgotten that a good teacher avoids over-wearying and boring his pupils. Listening entails a considerable effort of concentration, especially when it is unrelieved by gesture or by modification of the voice. Therefore, it will generally be wise to use only one record of the same kind at a time, and not to repeat any record more than two or three times in the same lesson. It is evident, however, that this is not an absolute rule, and it should be adapted somewhat to the age and attainments of the pupils.

For the same reason, it will be well to avoid using the gramophone when the pupils are tired, for instance, at the end of a lesson, unless perhaps it is used purely as a relaxation (songs, music, etc.).

Although the chief virtue of a record is that it can be used again and again, it must not be forgotten that the better pupils grow restive if they are expected to listen to the same thing many times on end. It is better to vary the records, even—indeed, above all—those whose chief utility lies in constant repetition. I am thinking particularly of exercises in pronuncia-

tion, intonation and rhythm. With beginners, such exercises are extremely useful, and effective, but they should not last more than a few minutes.

The Record as an Elocution Master

The record is most valuable as an elocution master. It should be used for great poetry, celebrated dramatic scenes and representative prose passages. Consequently, the reciters must be chosen most carefully. For beginners, one should insist upon a simple straightforward pronunciation, slow, clear and careful enunciation and purity of accent. Then, a little later, one should have recourse to passages recorded by great artists, chosen without too much regard for pedagogic values. But in any case, one must contrive to vary the method of presentation as much as possible. Sometimes, the passage should be explained before it is heard. At others, it should be heard once, or even several times (not necessarily on the same day), without comment from the teacher.

Excellent ear-training can be given by asking the pupils to listen to a record and to jot down all the words they understand at one hearing. After repeating this exercise several times at intervals of a few days, it is surprising to find how keen their auditive perception becomes and how many words they are able to recognize and understand quickly.

When a passage has been learned by heart it is a good plan to hear it again, rendered by different actors. Pupils will then be asked to say which of the various interpretations they prefer. Herein lies an invaluable exercise both of intelligence and of taste. It is one which will interest and benefit even very young children.

Cultural Value of Records

From time to time, in connection with some current event or a lesson in history or literature, it will be well to use records which give something of the atmosphere of the occasion. A speech by some famous statesman, a record made at some political or religious ceremony, have a dramatic effect which no wise teacher will neglect. But nothing serves better to interpret the very soul of a foreign people than good records of songs and music. These will not merely be used as a sort of reward to pupils who have been working well, but also to widen their knowledge of the culture of the nation which they are studying. Nursery rhymes and folk songs offer excellent and inexhaustible material.

Many of the lyrics of great poets have been set to music by well known musicians, and these, with hymns and certain operatic passages will all help to heighten this foreign atmosphere. But it will be well to prepare the minds of the pupils carefully in advance

if they are to gain lasting profit from records of this kind.

The gramophone, if used methodically and with discrimination, is undoubtedly one of the most useful of the aids which science has brought to the teacher of

foreign languages, and the day is not far off when it will form part of the indispensable equipment of the class-room alongside of the blackboard and wall charts.

Georges Roger

The Dramatic Principle and the Gramophone Record

THE *New Era* has been good enough to ask me for a note on my own work in Gramophone Recording for Modern Language Learning, and I respond with great pleasure. I write, however, not for the sake of publicity, necessary as this is, but to help all teachers who are considering the introduction of such apparatus. They should realize right away that the adoption of a so-called 'mechanical' appliance is at the same time a 'spiritual' affair, if the motive points true, if the teacher recognizes that body and mind, mechanism and spirit are a unity.

The New Renaissance

As I have recently written elsewhere, this unity is most clearly displayed in our own era, and we may feel that we are helping to bring in a Re-renaissance. Bell, Marconi, Baird, to-day replace the Gutenberg and Caxton of yesterday: then the inventors gave us mechanical types, mechanical paper and pens: to-day they offer us mechanical disques, radios or talkies, and once more the reactionaries protest and denounce them as mercenary, illiberal and vulgar.

It is not surprising, therefore, that the first appeal of the Language Record maker had to be made to the only people who would then buy the records—the 'business' schools. Mr. Roston, who has made the name Linguaphone famous, deserves all the credit as the pioneer: he put on to his records the material for which his clients asked: when new clients came along asking for culture material he was in a position to supply that also. I am sure that some of his advanced records are as fine as the best productions from Stuttgart.

Let us be clear as to the purpose of a genuine Language Record. A capital error was made by many academic folk who were only concerned with cultivating one small corner of our great language field: they isolated phonetics, or vocabulary, as a separate element, denying the unifying principle which makes language a living experience. The phoneticians jumped at the chance of getting their special nostrum put forward. Careless of human nature, contemptuous of educational psychology, relying on their own prestige in their own field (to which they are fully entitled by years of industry and research), they have sent out long series of records which, in my opinion, cannot achieve what the promoter designed.

'Sound' Values and Dramatic Values

I have pursued exactly the opposite principle: 'sound' values are not to be separated, *by beginners*,

from 'behaviour' values, from 'situation' values. The speakers, in their own small theatre (a four minutes' episode), must be real men and women acting in the country where the sounds are native. Their performance, although portraying a simple situation, has meaning: we get somewhere, even in four minutes: we get glimpses (if French be our language) of French folk-songs, of French history, and geography, incidentally brought in for a moment for even the beginner can and should know what he is about when we introduce him to his neighbour German or Frenchman, across the sea.

This appeal for his co-operation, whether he be child or adult, makes him realize that the fundamental principle of faithful imitation is based upon selective attention.

And he realizes how delightful is the experience, how worth while it is to absorb himself (not only his ear, but his whole system) in attention because he is confronted with a situation which he can reproduce with the aid of his comrades, just as he learns to improve his vernacular by acting the *Gondolier* or the *Merchant of Venice*. The clause 'with the aid of his comrades' deserves an essay to itself, for we use our sociology as much as our psychology. French is not a selfish acquisition, completed when we have got high marks for our individual performance in a 'composition'. We learn it and shall exercise it in good company from which our teacher is not excluded.

Drama as an Aid to Language Learning

But this social aspect can only be glanced at here. The capital point, of overwhelming importance, is the acceptance of the *play way* principle, or, as we are calling it, the dramatic principle, as the starting point in language acquirement. It may seem paradoxical, but the play in this case is the only path to reality. Shakespeare puts the same essential idea into the mouth of Hamlet. Our pupils cannot go to Paris, and directly confront the foreigner. If they did, they would at the start make nothing of the situation, beyond getting their ear attuned to the sound of the language. So we bring a bit of Paris to them. Real Parisians, happy human folk like themselves, but differing from them in many points. Those points we wish them to learn, both on the supremely important subconscious plane and in the sphere of selective attention.

How simple, how direct becomes our method when it is reduced to these terms. We say: Copy exactly, writing down every accent, reproducing every mode in utterance and song; for just so far

as you forget yourself, you learn French and you learn German. You do not cease to be a patriotic Britisher but you add to your native virtues a few of those in which the foreigner excels.

Finally, where does the teacher come in? Are we not dismissing him to play an inferior rôle? Will not these foreign voices put his pronunciation into the shade? Ought not the teacher always be in the lime-light, in his own classroom? Those who are afraid of being overshadowed had better not experiment

with either the records produced by the present writer, or those of any other series where real French is presented. Any teacher who fears that his prestige is endangered by having to admit that he is a true-born Englishman must certainly keep the native voices of foreigners outside the classroom door.

But this advice is really superfluous, for teachers of that kidney do not read the *New Era*—probably they have never heard of it.

J. J. Findlay

School Exchanges and School Journeys

THE object of this article is to describe briefly some of the ways in which the study of foreign languages in secondary schools may be assisted by the provision of opportunities for pupils to spend some time abroad. It is not suggested that the study of the language is the only object with which visits of pupils to foreign countries are arranged. In many such visits, educationally valuable from other points of view, language study is only a minor consideration, and any benefits obtained in this respect are incidental. On the other hand there are certain kinds of visits in which the primary object is to assist the learning of a foreign language and it is with these that I shall deal.

For this purpose the pupil must be brought into as close touch as possible with the life and the people, especially the young people, of the country. To the utilitarian benefit is then added an equally important result, for every such contact tends to increase that friendship and understanding between people of different nations which has become so vital a necessity for the welfare of humanity.

It may be said at once that, in the organization of foreign visits with a definite language aim, we in England are still much behind some other countries, although the number of English pupils making such visits is steadily increasing. It does not yet, however, approach the number of pupils from other countries who want to come to England. One reason for this may be that, in characteristic English fashion, our schemes are organized by voluntary effort, with little co-ordination and little assistance from the national authorities beyond a benevolent approval, whereas in Continental countries the State usually takes a much more active part in such schemes.

Visits are generally organized on an exchange basis. So far as England is concerned, since only three modern languages, French, German and Spanish, are taught to any extent in our secondary schools, it is only with the countries speaking those languages that it is possible to arrange exchanges with a language aim on both sides. The principal types of exchange are:—

1. Exchange of individual pupils between families;
2. Exchange of groups from the same or from different schools, the members living with families;

3. Exchange of groups, the members living together in schools or camps along with a group of another nationality.

Some variation of conditions is possible within each of the three types of exchange.

Exchange of Individual Pupils

Exchanges of this kind during summer holidays have been arranged for a number of years by the Modern Language Association. At the present time the scheme is organized by the Joint Committee of the Four Secondary Associations in co-operation with the M.L.A. and the Anglo-German Academic Bureau. The Joint Four ensures contact with all the secondary schools in the country and the actual exchange arrangements are carried out by the M.L.A. and the A.-G.A.B. The latter works with the official organization in Germany, the Pädagogische Auslandsstelle, and the former works with the Office National des Ecoles et Universités in France and with official organizations in Belgium and Spain. Nearly 550 applications were dealt with this year and in very few cases was it found impossible to arrange an exchange. Special care is taken in pairing applicants, misfits are few and many exchanges are repeated in subsequent years. Exchanges may be simultaneous or consecutive and although the periods vary, pupils are advised to stay at least a month in the other country. The only expenses are the cost of travel, for which reduced fares are available, and pocket money.

Exchange of Groups living with Families

Exchanges of the second kind may take place either in term time or in holidays. Those in term time are usually undertaken by individual schools. The scheme will be more easily described by reference to an actual example. One of the earliest exchanges of this kind in which an English school took part was between Chatham Junior Technical School and a school in Bremen. Eighteen boys from Bremen came to Chatham at the beginning of June and lived in the families of Chatham boys for three weeks. During that time they attended the school and took part in the ordinary curriculum. At the end of the three weeks eighteen Chatham boys



An Interlude at the MacJanet International Camp—No Language necessary



National Songs at the same Camp

returned with the Bremen boys for a similar visit. The number of such exchanges is increasing and similar exchanges have taken place with Spain. Last Spring a party of Headmasters from the Lille district visited the West Riding of Yorkshire with the object of promoting a scheme for pairing schools which will eventually arrange exchange visits in the two districts. Preliminary preparations, including the exchange of correspondence between the pupils who are to take part, are to be made with a view to increasing the benefit to be derived from the exchanges.

An exchange of this kind took place last summer, when a group of fifty pupils drawn from various secondary schools visited Denmark and were entertained in Danish families for three weeks. A return visit of Danish pupils will take place next summer. In this case the language benefit is on one side only.

Exchange of Groups in Schools or Camps

The third kind of exchange, in which groups of pupils from two countries live together for a period, is perhaps the most profitable from the language point of view, especially if adequate preparation has been made. Such exchanges have taken place between Berlin and Sheffield, and last summer, between London and Berlin. Under the London scheme, thirty English boys and three masters lived with an equal number of German boys and masters for four weeks in an Oberrealschule in Strausberg, and twenty girls and three mistresses from each country lived together in a school at Falkenberg. At each place a programme of lessons, games and excursions in common was arranged. The total cost, including travelling expenses, was between £11 and £12 for each pupil for the four weeks' stay. Immediately previous to these visits, parties of German boys and girls had visited London, but whereas under the Sheffield scheme the same pupils took part in both visits, this was not the case under the London scheme. Germany arranges similar exchanges with France and Spain and pupils who take part must have reached a certain standard in the languages of

the country to be visited. In addition, study-circles and clubs are formed and preparations for the forthcoming visit go on for a year before it actually takes place. In the Franco-German Holiday Camps (Foyers de vacances) which have been organized since 1929, from fifteen to thirty pupils of each nationality live, work and play together for four weeks, and the visiting group spends the fifth week in a visit to the capital of the country.

When pupils from more than two countries are grouped together (as in the International Summer School held at Mill Hill School last summer, when 140 boys from four different countries lived together), it is difficult to arrange formal language instruction. Language learning is not the main object of such schools, although a good deal of benefit in this respect must be derived from lectures, play acting and conversation.

Helpful Organizations

Many of the group exchanges are organized by private arrangement. Assistance in arranging German exchanges is provided by the Anglo-German Academic Bureau, 75 Gower Street, W.C.1; exchanges with France and Spain are assisted by the Modern Language Association, 5 Stone Buildings, Lincoln's Inn, W.C.2, and by the Joint Four International Sub-Committee, 29 Gordon Square, W.C.1.

In addition to the kinds of exchange described above, many continental visits of a holiday nature are arranged every year by schools. For example, in 1930 no fewer than 320 such visits were carried out under the auspices of the School Journey Association and, although few of these had language study as their primary object, the advice and experience of the School Journey Association, 35 Park View Road, Addiscombe, Croydon, are always at the service of schools contemplating any kind of foreign visit.

In this attempt to describe briefly the ways in which foreign visits may be used as an aid to language teaching, the actual exchanges referred to are only used as typical examples and not necessarily as being better or more successful than many others.

G. R. Parker

The Drama and Modern Languages

EVERY year, and even several times in the same year, some keen teacher of modern languages finds that the drama is useful in teaching a language. Its use is not yet widely enough exploited, but all sorts of experiments are being made and their authors are getting to know something of each other.

I suppose a very long list might be made of the French and German plays produced by students at English schools and universities in 1932—I venture to say it is twice the number produced in 1922. Lucky indeed is the school which has in its modern language teacher an enthusiastic actor and lucky the university where the Professor joins with his pupils in the annual French or German play. In London

the Colleges have a Dramatic Competition, when French plays are produced and judges proclaim the winners. I know nothing of these competitions, but I am certain that many of those taking part find this the best thing in their course.

Mastering a Language through Acting

Modern language teachers know the value of this Play-acting to their pupils. When we have acted in a play, rehearsed scenes over and over, suited the action to the word, we have a possession for life.

As leader of the Lord Halifax Players in Germany from 1926 to 1930, I always tried to fit in a little

play in German as well, and when the Hamburg boys brought a German play to Yorkshire, they also performed a short English play specially written for school work. And very well they played it, and very hearty was the applause in Sheffield and Leeds.

It was in order to get together those interested in drama as a help to modern language teaching that the International Students' Drama League was formed. Its objects are: 'To promote the production of English plays abroad by English student players and of foreign plays in England by foreign student players; and to promote the production of foreign plays by foreign professional players in England and the visits of English professional players to foreign countries.'

A committee was formed, with Dame Sybil Thorndike as President, and now the League is approaching the end of its first year of existence, and will publish its first Annual Report in January.

Schoolboy Actors Abroad

In the year 1933 we shall have a rich crop of adventures. Ipswich School is off in January to play in Germany, beginning at Aachen and going on to Bielefeld and Braunschweig. They finish up with five days at Hamburg, and here they will have in the audience students who saw the Stewart Headlam Players in the 'Merchant of Venice' last Easter, and some who saw the Lord Halifax Players three years ago. Then in the Spring, Haileybury is taking 'Julius Cæsar' to Sweden and Denmark, so beating the record of the Lord Halifax Players. For while the latter wandered for four years, during the summer holidays, in North Germany, Haileybury is now making its fifth journey.

As to visits to England from the Continent, the year 1933 should bring us students from German schools and universities. But what of France? There must be plenty of dramatic work in French

schools, but so far we have had no visits. We are generally told that French pupils work so hard that they cannot waste their time on acting. But I hear from Inspectors and schoolmasters that they are going to 'change all that'.

Professional Actors—French and English

So much for amateur work. The International Students' Drama League has given English schools opportunities to see French plays acted by actors from Paris theatres. The last autumn tour included the following places: The 'Old Vic', Maidstone, Southampton, Taunton, Bristol, Bath, Ipswich, Harrogate College, Uppingham, Birmingham, Leicester, Cheltenham Ladies' College, Newcastle, Bolton, Manchester, Penrhos College, Eastbourne and Brighton. Over 12,000 people must have seen these French plays—and everywhere one hears the same thing. Pupils have their interest in French stimulated, the French acting is a revelation, indeed some say that it is the first time that they have known what 'real French' is.

We hope that an English Professional Company will be able to return the visit. It is true there is already an English Company in Paris, but what we want is to send them a Company acting Shakespeare in the English tradition. And I think that many towns like Lyons or Marseilles or Aix-en-Provence would be glad to see a Shakespeare play by a good company of English actors. Money is, of course, scarce, but perhaps we can get back to barter. We cannot exchange by measure or by weight, but perhaps by time. Perhaps we can offer two hours of Shakespeare for two hours of Molière. This is not impossible, in fact our League is going to do it.

The League may have to begin with small companies, but we hope that Europe, which welcomes our athletes so warmly, will be ready to give an equally warm welcome to our Shakespeare Players.

T. R. Dawes

Drama and School

DRAMA is becoming increasingly important in both European and American schools because it brings the child into close and vivid contact with a variety of experiences.

Drama as a Release

All those who have ever dealt with this subject know that the charm of acting lies in putting oneself into another person's place. It is of particular service to the teacher of foreign languages; for its peculiar charm will work fruitfully even in the early stages of learning a language. It will help to loosen the tongues of those who are reluctant to speak, and it will speed up the process of acquiring a fresh language, a process which is essentially that of imitating the gesture and the intonation of a foreigner until one becomes intimate with his very mentality.

The recitation of ballads or of any poem where dialogue prevails provides this dramatic element, for the children realize that the different characters both speak and behave each in his individual way. Such wonderful ballads as 'Erlkönigs Tochter', the famous translation of the old Danish ballad given in J. G. Herder's 'Stimmen der Völker in ihren Liedern' or L. Uhland's 'Tallefer' and 'Bertran de Born', as well as Goethe's 'Zauberlehrling', 'Der Fischer', have proved to be quite wonderful experiences for very young pupils especially when they are acted by children.

Some Plays that have been found useful

Once children are allowed to act in school, they will soon begin to dramatize all sorts of episodes both from lessons and life. In many schools boys and girls

perform real plays. There is a boys' college in Vienna where practically every play that is studied in the German literature class is acted either in whole or in part.

In some of the Austrian secondary schools and colleges, as no doubt in other countries too, little plays in French or English are acted. Some of these are adapted from stories or fairy tales (e.g. 'Le Chat Botté,' Wilde's 'The Nightingale and the Rose').

As to 'ready made plays' fit for school performances 'La Farce de Maître Pathelin' is likely to interest teachers of French, and the excellent collection of 'One-Act Plays of To-day', selected by Mr. J. W. Marriott (George S. Harrap & Co. Ltd.), meets with the steadily increasing interest of English teachers.

Nor are the world-famous dramatic creations of foreign literature neglected. Thus we had in the Federal College for Girls, Vienna, III (Bundeserziehungsanstalt für Mädchen), as well as in a Commercial College for Girls, excellent performances of some of Molière's comedies by pupils of the advanced classes. In one of our Girls' Colleges where English is taught as 'first foreign language' the seventh class (i.e. the class before the last) used to perform, very success-

fully, some of Oscar Wilde's and G. B. Shaw's comedies, ('The Importance of Being Earnest', 'Arms and the Man', 'You Never Can Tell').

Performance of Foreign Plays

It may be added that many performances given here (by a group of English actors under the guidance of Mr. E. Stirling) made us acquainted, in a most impressive way, with Mr. Sherriff's play, 'Journey's End'.

We feel strongly that frequent visits from foreign actors are very useful as they enable young people to become acquainted with the works of different countries, performed in the original languages. The 'Austrian Association of the World Theatre League' has worked for this ever since it was founded, though, of course, the precarious financial situation prevailing throughout the world unhappily continues to hamper all such enterprises. This is a most regrettable fact, the more so as dramatic art is one of the most important means of creating sympathetic interest not only in the literatures but also in the life and thought of foreign countries.

G. Petrasovics

Broadcasting and Modern Languages

It is now generally known that the educational responsibility for broadcasts to schools in England has been vested in a Central Council, composed of educationists representing Central and Local Authorities, Training Colleges and Teachers' Associations. This Council works through an Executive Committee and a series of Subject Committees, one for each subject of the broadcast curriculum. Thus the broadcasts in modern languages are arranged not by officials of the B.B.C., but by an outside Committee of teachers and others responsible for the trend of modern language teaching in the schools. The Chairman of this body is Miss A. G. Philip, Chief Woman Inspector of the Board of Education; Professor R. L. Graeme Ritchie serves as a specialist member, and there are five teacher members, all of whom are following modern language broadcasts with their pupils in secondary, central or technical schools.

The Value of Broadcasting as Ear-Training

That broadcasting can do a great deal to help the private listener to master a foreign language is no longer open to question. The Modern Language Committee, however, are strongly of the opinion that as far as the schools are concerned no attempt should be made to teach foreign languages in the ordinary sense of the word. That is, and must always be, the province of the teacher in the school. Broadcasting, moreover, has its own particular function. For pupils in the early stages of a language it can provide training in the recognition of sounds and in comprehending the different languages as spoken

by educated people of the countries concerned. For more advanced pupils it can also bring opportunities of hearing a variety of native voices, and of listening to examples of ordinary conversation or to the good reading of selected passages of poetry and prose.

The school broadcast programme for the year 1932-33 includes broadcasts in French and German. There are two courses in French; one for beginners in their first or second year, and one for more advanced pupils of sixteen years and over.

Early Stages in French

The elementary course is known as 'Early Stages in French,' and is broadcast every Tuesday afternoon from 3.35 to 4 p.m. An illustrated pamphlet containing the various texts is issued in connection with these lessons. The more advanced course comprises a series of readings from French literature alternating with dialogues on subjects relating to everyday life. These are broadcast on Monday afternoons from 3.25 to 3.40 p.m. The arrangements for German consist of a similar series of readings and dialogues for older pupils, broadcast on Thursdays from 3.50 to 4.5 p.m. References to the texts of both French and German readings, and details concerning the dialogues, are also contained in a special pamphlet.

It is now evident that the strain of listening to a foreign language for twenty-five minutes on end is too great for beginners. The lessons have therefore been divided up as follows:—Five minutes, pronunciation and intonation exercises; ten minutes, *lecture expliquée*; three minutes, singing of a simple French song; seven minutes, dialogue, alternating with readings of simple French verse. This

arrangement makes it possible for pupils who will not benefit by listening to the whole lesson to follow the part that suits them best.

The material of the broadcasts is very simple and the lessons are conducted entirely in French, as the Committee feel that pupils should learn to rely wholly upon their own power of accurate hearing. The children are encouraged to take an active share in every part of the lesson: they are asked to repeat words, simple phrases, and easy verses of poetry, and to join in the singing of the French songs.

If these lessons are to be used to the best advantage it is essential that the teacher in the classroom should be prepared to co-operate with the teacher at the microphone. For instance, it will add considerably to the pupils' enjoyment of the songs if the melody is learnt beforehand. (The songs are all taken from one book, to which page references are made in the pamphlet.) During the actual broadcast it has been found that if the children are led by the teacher in the repetition exercises a far more active and satisfactory response is secured. Some teachers find it useful to make notes of any unfamiliar words used by the broadcast speaker, so that their meaning may later be explained to the class. Various methods of 'following-up' the lessons will occur to the teacher, but it has been found that a few questions immediately after the broadcast help to fix the lesson in the minds of the pupils. Teachers also report that they encourage their pupils to use in their ordinary class work, both oral and written, words and phrases learnt during the broadcast lesson.

Readings and Dialogues for Older Pupils

These broadcasts are mainly intended for the older pupils of secondary schools. German is usually begun at a later stage than French, and for this reason the French Readings and Dialogues are of a more advanced nature than the German. The

French Readings consist of extracts of prose and poetry, taken either from one book, which is used throughout the year, or from classic writers, copies of whose works most schools may be expected to possess. These broadcasts are purely and simply *readings*, with a word or two from the speaker concerning author and style. The German Readings on the other hand, are commented upon from the point of view of grammar and construction. The texts are usually taken from one book throughout the year. The French Dialogues are again more difficult than the German Dialogues. They are delivered at an almost natural rate of speech, whilst the German Dialogues are spoken much more slowly. To counter-balance this, however, a synopsis and vocabulary is given in the pamphlet for each French dialogue, and pupils are therefore able to familiarize themselves beforehand with the subject and with any difficult words.

Criticisms and Suggestions Invited

The Modern Languages Committee of the Central Council has been working on this question of modern language broadcasts for over three years. They have formed certain conclusions (enumerated in the second paragraph of this article) which have only been arrived at as the result of experiment and of the evidence collected during this period. The Committee believe that these lessons have now reached a form which should satisfy the requirements of a good many schools throughout the country. The Council are by no means in touch, however, with all the schools that are following one or other of these courses, and it is possible that there are teachers who would like to make suggestions for the further improvement of the lessons. The Committee will welcome any such criticism and comments, for it is on evidence of this kind, on the experience of the schools that are actually listening, that the future of these broadcasts depends.

Marie G. Simond

Some Developments in the Teaching of French

IN September, 1925, a number of teachers of French and others interested in the French language, literature and culture met together at East Ham to discuss ways and means of improving their knowledge of the language, and of pooling their experience for the benefit of teachers of French.

Le Trèfle

An association named 'Le Trèfle', from the fact that the members were drawn from three towns, East Ham, Ilford and Walthamstow, was formed. This association later affiliated to the Alliance Française, and its members have the advantage of hearing a number of lectures, given by eminent French people at the Institut Français, South Kensington. Since its inception the branch has extended its

boundaries, and at present its members are drawn from the whole of the north-eastern metropolitan area. Although membership is not confined to the teaching profession, within its ranks are found teachers from secondary, central and senior schools. Usually there are ten fortnightly meetings during the session. Lectures are given by French speakers on various topics, followed by questions and discussion, and this society has unquestionably done much to improve teaching methods in the large area covered by its activities.

The Panel of Assessors

Another interesting development in the teaching of French is taking place in the districts of East Ham, Leyton and Walthamstow. The initial move

came from H.M. Inspector of schools. A panel of assessors was appointed, in 1930, from among the French teachers of the districts, to visit the schools where French is taught, to assess the value of the work done in the subject, and to give a general report to H.M. Inspector. Entry into the scheme was optional. Any Education Authority could refuse permission for the schools under its control to enter; head-teacher had a similar right for his own school. All the departments in the three areas, with one exception, decided to participate. A panel of twelve members, four from each area, was formed; the teaching staffs of the schools concerned in each district, appointing their own section of the panel. In addition a central committee, consisting of two members from each district was instituted, to act in an advisory capacity to the panel if required, and to form a connecting link between the panel and the head-teachers of the schools in the scheme. Each head-teacher was notified several days before the visit to this school was made, and was free to choose any day during a given week. Each school was visited by two assessors working together. Finally the panel met, and drew up a copious report, based on their observations in the schools, and on information supplied by the head-teachers to a

questionnaire drawn up by the panel. This report stated:—

- (a) their general estimate of the value of the work being done in the schools they had visited;
- (b) the directions in which they had noticed the greatest progress;
- (c) directions in which they considered developments were possible;
- (d) specific recommendations.

The report was submitted to a joint meeting of the central committee and the panel, who approved it without amendment, and a copy was sent to H.M. Inspector. Copies were also sent to the Education Authorities concerned.

This report should be of considerable interest and assistance to the teachers of French in the three areas, to whom it has been circulated, representing, as it does, the considered views of a selected body of teachers, after thorough investigation. Considerable benefit has also been derived by the assessors themselves from their opportunities of studying school organization and teaching methods in other districts. The experiment is being continued during the current year and the panel has been increased to sixteen members.

George C. Smith

French Teaching in the Day Technical School for Girls, Fort Pitt, Chatham

THIS school aims at providing a general education with a technical bias for girls between the ages of 12 and 16 years, who will enter the nursing profession, needlework and allied trades, commercial and secretarial occupations.

The Application of the Direct Method

In essentials the three years' French course follows the suggestions of the Board of Education Pamphlet No. 82, 'Foreign Languages in Modern Schools', and the method, devised after experiment, makes strong appeal to the girls and achieves the most excellent results in the time. In three years the average pupil learns to understand French spoken by a Frenchman; to converse with considerable fluency on everyday subjects; to read intelligently simple French stories and periodicals, and to write adequate letters. This end is achieved through the sources of a purely Direct Method. The animating effect of the ample use of mime and action in avoiding English words intensifies the value of the lesson.

Three weeks are devoted to training in sound, when the sounds are applied to proper names only, until the phonetic symbols present no difficulty. At this early stage the principles of intonation are applied and, before long, the pupils develop a consciousness of sound and tune. This introduction of the use of phonetic script throughout the first term minimizes subsequent mistakes in sound.

Nouns and adjectives are taught whenever possible by means of the concrete objects or by clear pictures. During the first year, the verbs used are chiefly concrete and the action always accompanies the statement. New words are used repeatedly, even exaggeratedly, so that the pupils, familiar with the words in their limited vocabulary, rapidly gain confidence in using them. From the beginning they are taught to ask questions as well as to answer them, and to give orders as well as to execute them. The continual and varied use of questions throughout the course leads to fluent conversation, and the habit of suiting the action to the word prepares the pupil to carry out simple instructions for making articles and French dishes in the course of her third year work.

Grammar Difficulties Overcome

Throughout the course the lesson is devoted to oral and blackboard work, and written French is taught through homework by means of graded exercises in sentence composition, carefully studied and prepared in class. Translation is entirely excluded from the French course, but during the third year the English course uses translations of texts previously studied in French, as an exercise in English. The usual problems of teaching grammar in French are minimized by the fact that the essentials of grammar are taught in English lessons.

co-ordinated with the French. In the practical application of grammar rules to French the difficulties of gender, agreement and verb ending are simplified by the use of coloured chalks. The vocabulary and reading matter chosen deals with the everyday needs of the pupils. For example, the needlework pupils most readily learn to use a new grammatical construction if encouraged to apply it in describing the making or choosing of clothes, and it is surprising to find that house cleaning, dish washing, shopping, sewing and mending are amongst the most popular lesson subjects with all pupils. Later, imaginary visits to French shops,

restaurants, hairdressers, dressmakers, theatres, etc. provide matter for rapid reading. Grammar points are stressed by means of very varied games (e.g. card verb games) as well as by oral and written exercise and the value of carefully graded songs and poems cannot be over-estimated.

The popularity of French as a recreation is apparent from the use of the French library of books, periodicals, card games and gramophone records, the enthusiasm of the school French Circle and the success of school journeys to France. The fruits of this experiment are embodied in a textbook 'French for Girls'—Clarendon Press.

A. Thomas

Useful Publications

An excellent theoretical summary of the development in the use of the gramophone for teaching purposes is given in Herr Studienrat Dr. Plaut's report made before the second International Congress of Teachers of Modern Languages, published in the *General Report* of the Congress,

pp. 311-340, Les Presses Universitaires de France, Paris, 1931; one Volume, 548 pp. Teachers may also be interested in the records made by J. J. Findlay: *The Dramatic Language Series*, No. 1, *Amis Français*, etc. (The Gregg Publishing Co., London and New York.)

International Notes

FELLOWSHIP NEWS

The Editor, Mrs. Ensor, sailed for South Africa on Saturday, 3rd December. Though her visit is mainly of a personal nature, she hopes to do a good deal of work for the Fellowship, both in lecturing to existing groups and in breaking new ground.



World Fellow Teas

On Friday, 11th November, the first of a series of weekly talks given by distinguished guests to informal gatherings of members was heard at the premises of the New Education Fellowship Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, London.

Dr. van der Leeuw of Holland gave an interesting account of his experiences of 'The New Education' in Russia. Although many aspects of the social and economic life of the Communist State had interested him, he felt that the political philosophy appeared to be incompatible with progressive education. This had been tried, but it was ill-adapted for purposes of propaganda or for the dogmatic assertion of the Marxist philosophy. Consequently, the old-fashioned class teaching had been reinstated, with the children undergoing constant dogmatic propaganda teaching. He also found various other points disquieting, particularly the militarist spirit which animated the great struggle for economic self-sufficiency.

The following week, the Fellowship had the pleasure of hearing a first-hand account of educative conditions in China from Miss Irene Ho.

The essential differences between conditions in Russia and in China would appear to be that whereas

in the one case, the chief problem was the transition from complete illiteracy to Western culture as interpreted by the Soviet, in the case of China, the position was more complex, since a very fine classical culture already existed. It was, therefore, necessary to build an educational system in which this classical tradition, meeting with the influences of Western culture, could be adapted to modern needs and conditions.

Miss Ho gave an interesting account of field work done by various pioneers with this purpose in view, and we were made aware of some of the many difficulties which had to be overcome.

World Fellow Teas are held at the New Education Fellowship Headquarters, 29, Tavistock Square, London, every Friday from 4.30 to 6 for members and their friends.



Conference of Education Associations

During the course of this conference, which is to be held from 2nd January to 9th January, the English Section of the New Education Fellowship has arranged its annual meeting on 5th January, at 5 p.m., which Lord Allen of Hurtwood will address. His subject is: 'Statesmanship in the twentieth century has come to depend upon public opinion. Education is now the determining factor for good or ill'. Mr. E. Salter Davies, M.A., will be in the chair. On 6th January, at 5 p.m., the International Montessori Society has arranged a lecture—'From Practice to Principle in Education'. Dr. J. J. van der Leeuw, Dr. James Hadfield, Professor E. Marceau and Miss Florence James are the speakers.

NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION

Members of the Nursery School Association will be glad to learn that the Save the Children Fund has started a special committee to promote the instituting of Open-Air Nurseries for the children of the unemployed. They are acting on a suggestion of Mr. Bruce Glasier, who is taking up the subject very keenly. The idea appears to be to make a start on one or two of the Occupational Centres now rapidly springing up and down the country. The possibilities in connection with this development are enormous, and the Nursery School Association, having been invited to join the special committee, is throwing its full weight into the work. We hope from time to time to keep our members informed of what is happening. The Association hopes shortly to publish two more pamphlets—one on Nursery School Buildings and Equipment (including Toys), the other on Variations in the Nursery School Movement. It is hoped that both of them will be ready for distribution by the end of the year. Our members are asked to apply for them as early as, in the case of both, they deal with subjects vital to nursery school work and training.

The World Federation of Education Associations, of which the Nursery School Association is affiliated, is holding its fifth biennial conference in Dublin from 29th July to 4th August. The N.S.A. has decided to be represented there.

The four branches of the Association—Manchester, Birmingham, Reading, and Monmouth and St. Giles—have sent encouraging reports of their year's work. These will be read at the annual meeting on 16th January. The thanks of the whole organization are due to the honorary secretaries of the Branches and their Committees for the unstinting work and devotion so freely given to the movement.

The Superintendents' Council held a meeting in Sheffield on the 26th of last month. An open conference in addition to a business session was held, at which Mr. G. C. T. Giles, B.A., was one of the speakers.

We would remind the members that the Association possesses an excellent set of slides—more than twenty of them—illustrating the work of nursery schools. They are to be obtained on application to Headquarters, 29, Tavistock Square, W.C.1.



OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

Education for the Unemployed

Talking on the subject of 'Education for Unwanted Leisure' at the opening meeting of the Glasgow University Education Society, Dr. William Boyd said that one of the tragic features of the present industrial situation was the wastage of men and women as a result of the deterioration caused by the emptiness and inanity of unemployed life. The effects were most marked in the case of those in the 'teens and the twenties. Those workers and citizens of the future were missing the opportunity of building intelligence and character through the purposeful activities of normal social life.

What could be done? There could only be one answer: educate those young people, and their elders as well, so that when we emerge from this horrible depression they will be better human beings.

Dr. Boyd proceeded to show what could be done by giving an account of the work of the Clydebank Mutual Service Association of which he is President. In Clydebank, he said, there were 12,000 unemployed, a tenth of whom were between 18 and 21. With the willing co-operation of employed and unemployed, activity groups of all kinds had been set going. The management was as far as possible in the hands of the members of the different groups, and leaders and instructors were in many cases unemployed men and women. Though no one thought of the activities of the Association as educational, they represented a real educational experiment and demonstrated afresh the potentialities of vital education to quicken mind and spirit.



Another experiment of this nature is being carried out by the Grith Fyrd Camps. A chain of permanent camp communities is being formed in which young men of all classes can live a worth while life, even if they are precluded for the time being from earning a living. In addition to constructing their own camps, the men cultivate land for vegetables and raise small livestock; while discussions, singing, play-reading, etc., are an important feature of camp life.



The South African Friends School

We are very glad to welcome the opening of the South African Friends School at Inchanga, Natal. It is a boarding school for boys and girls and takes students from kindergarten to Matriculation. This is the latest of a number of Quaker Schools to be founded during the past 200 years. The tradition which it will inherit may be expressed as a belief in the spiritual basis of true education. To awaken the desire for the fullest possible life, to encourage the pursuit of that which is good, beautiful and true and to stimulate the search for knowledge has been the aim of the Quaker Schools in England, America and the Dominions, and it will also be the aim of this latest Quaker School.



The International Montessori Society

International Montessori Society Meetings were held during and after the Nice Conference, and it was decided to constitute the centre of this permanently in Berlin. Dr. Axster of Berlin has been appointed the General Secretary, Mr. Mario Montessori being now the Director General and Dr. Montessori, as always, President. Changes in the English personnel have also occurred, and Miss Irene White has been appointed Secretary. The next International Montessori Course will be held in Barcelona from February to June, 1933.

The Institute for the Scientific Treatment of Delinquency

We note with great interest the formation of the Institute for the Scientific Treatment of Delinquency. The aims of the Institute are to collect and classify cases of scientific treatment, to found an experimental clinic or 'Laboratory' for the investigation and treatment of carefully selected cases, and to organize a series of lecture discussions in connection with the work of the 'Laboratory'. It is hoped that the Institute will form a link between all those engaged in the study and practice of criminal psychology and cognate subjects. It is intended primarily to investigate and treat cases of children and young adults who come under the attention of the police. The recommendations of the Institute are largely based on the Report prepared, at the request of the Medical Research Council, by Dr. G. W. Pailthorpe, and they claim that the application of these recommendations would save many men and women from crime, and prevent public funds from being spent unproductively on recurring imprisonments. Among the many distinguished men and women who support the Institute are Dr. Alfred Adler, The Rt. Hon. Lord Allen of Hurtwood, Professor Cyril Burt, M.A., D.Sc., J. A. Hadfield, M.A., M.B., Ch.B., Ernest Jones, M.D., B.S., M.R.C.P., D.P.H., Professor C. G. Jung, M.D., L.L.D., and H. G. Wells.

The Carnegie Endowment for the Promotion of International Peace

A course of lectures is being held under the auspices of the European Centre of the Carnegie Endowment for the Promotion of International Peace from November, 1932, to June, 1933. The lecturer, M. André Tibal, is dealing with the economic organization of central Europe. In addition to this course, lectures are also being held three times a week, in collaboration with the Institut des Hautes Etudes Internationales on international law, diplomatic history and economic problems. All inquiries concerning these lectures should be addressed to: Centre Européen de la Donation Carnegie, 173 Boulevard St. Germain, Paris.

Spring Tour to the U.S.S.R.

The Society for Cultural Relations between the peoples of the British Commonwealth and the U.S.S.R. is arranging a tour of educationists to the U.S.S.R. during the Easter vacation, 1933. This tour will last from 21-25 days including the journey; six days will be spent in Leningrad and eight days in Moscow, when all types of educational institutions, both urban and rural, will be visited. A Russian-speaking educationist will lead the tour, and the cost will be about £35. Further particulars may be obtained from the Society for Cultural Relations between the peoples of the British Commonwealth and the U.S.S.R., 1 Montague Street, W.C.1.

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Publications

Our attention has been drawn to a most interesting work on the education of mentally deficient and backward children. It is intended for parents as well as for teachers and doctors, and should be of considerable service to them. Mlle Angles, a general Inspector of the 'Ecoles Maternelles', Doctor Hoffer of Paris, and Doctor Leopold Levi have collaborated in this work, which is entitled 'La Ré-éducation des Déficients Psychiques et des Retardés Scolaires'. It is published by G. Doin et Cie, 8 Place de l'Odéon, Paris, at 30 francs.

Teachers of modern languages and particularly of French may be interested in *La Gerbe*, a small periodical written, illustrated and printed by the children of l'Ecole Saint Paul (Alpes-Maritimes). The verses, stories and pictures are full of originality, and the paper can be obtained regularly for 5 francs a year from C. Freinet, St. Paul (A.-M.), C/C Marseille 115-03.

Bookshelf

[*Note.*—Owing to lack of space, the usual reviews are omitted from this issue, but will be included as usual in the February number.]

PARENTS : AND CHILDREN

SUPPLEMENT TO "THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL"

PRICE 3d.

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PSYCHOLOGY AND THE CHOICE OF A CAREER

ALEC RODGER

TO MOST people psychological tests are still objects of mystery. They have heard of their existence, of course, but they have no knowledge of what they are or of how they are given. The man in the street has a vague notion that they are similar to the one-minute problems he sees featured by the more popular daily papers, but there his acquaintance with them usually stops.

What are they really like? And are they of any use? It is obvious that neither of these questions can be answered adequately in the course of a short article of this kind, but we may perhaps find that it is possible to give some sort of a reply to both of them.

What are Psychological Tests?

Let us take, by way of illustration, tests of the type used by the vocational psychologist; that is, by the psychologist whose job it is to give advice to boys and girls about the careers they should adopt when they leave school.

In the first place, there are intelligence tests—tests for that general ability, for those 'wits', which we all possess in some degree and which we all employ in most of our ordinary activities; in looking up trains in Bradshaw, in planning our programme for the day, in buying groceries, in solving crossword puzzles.

Most of the intelligence tests given nowadays consist of paper-and-pencil problems. If you were being tested you might find yourself faced with a string of statements of this kind:—

Black is to white as bad is to
evil, good, happiness, green.
Part is to whole as page is to
book, word, ink, comma.
Baker is to bread as tailor is to
tailoress, cake, man, clothes.

What you would be asked to do would be to underline whichever one of the four words at the end of each statement appeared to you to make the best sense of the whole.

Or again, you might be asked to sort out mixed sentences of this kind:—

Mail vans red are.

One happiness no desires.

Night at shines sun the.

You would then have to indicate, by underlining one of the three words TRUE FALSE UNKNOWN which you would find printed at the end of each, whether you thought the untwisted sentence was true or false, or whether you thought it was impossible to give a definite opinion on the point.

There is nearly always a definite time-limit for each test, and the number of examples you completed correctly in say, half an hour's testing of this kind would provide the trained psychologist with a pretty good notion of the level of your intelligence. He would be able to say not just that you were 'bright', or that you were 'dull-witted': he would be able to say, with a fair degree of accuracy, *how* bright you were, or *how* dull-witted you were.

Tests for Practical Ability

The vocational psychologist uses, too, tests for practical ability; for there are many people who are not very good at paper-and-pencil problems and who show their intelligence to the best advantage when they are coping with really practical problems. In one test, for example, you are provided with wooden bricks, partly painted and partly unpainted, and you have to imitate a series of patterns by putting them together in various ways.

Dr. Te Water was unable to complete her article on Parent-Child Relationships and therefore the special series on Psychological Problems of Childhood has been interrupted but will be resumed in February.

Manual dexterity—that is, the ability to do hand-work quickly and accurately—is another capacity for which the psychologist has his tests. One very useful one consists in putting together and taking to pieces the parts of ten electric lampholders. The number of seconds required for both operations—the assembling and the stripping—is carefully recorded, and each of them is repeated five times; so that when you have finished the test you have put together and taken to pieces fifty electric lampholders.

Distinct from manual dexterity is mechanical ability. The two frequently ‘go together’, but they do not always do so. A person’s fingers may be ‘all thumbs’, but he may nevertheless be capable of understanding how quite complicated mechanical things are constructed and worked. Both practical and paper-and-pencil tests can be used for measuring this ability. One of the most widely-used practical ones consists in assembling the pieces of ten everyday mechanical objects—including a bicycle bell, a spanner, and a piece of chain.

Then there are tests for ability in the various processes—such as filing, indexing, checking, and copying—which take up the greater part of the time of most office workers. There are

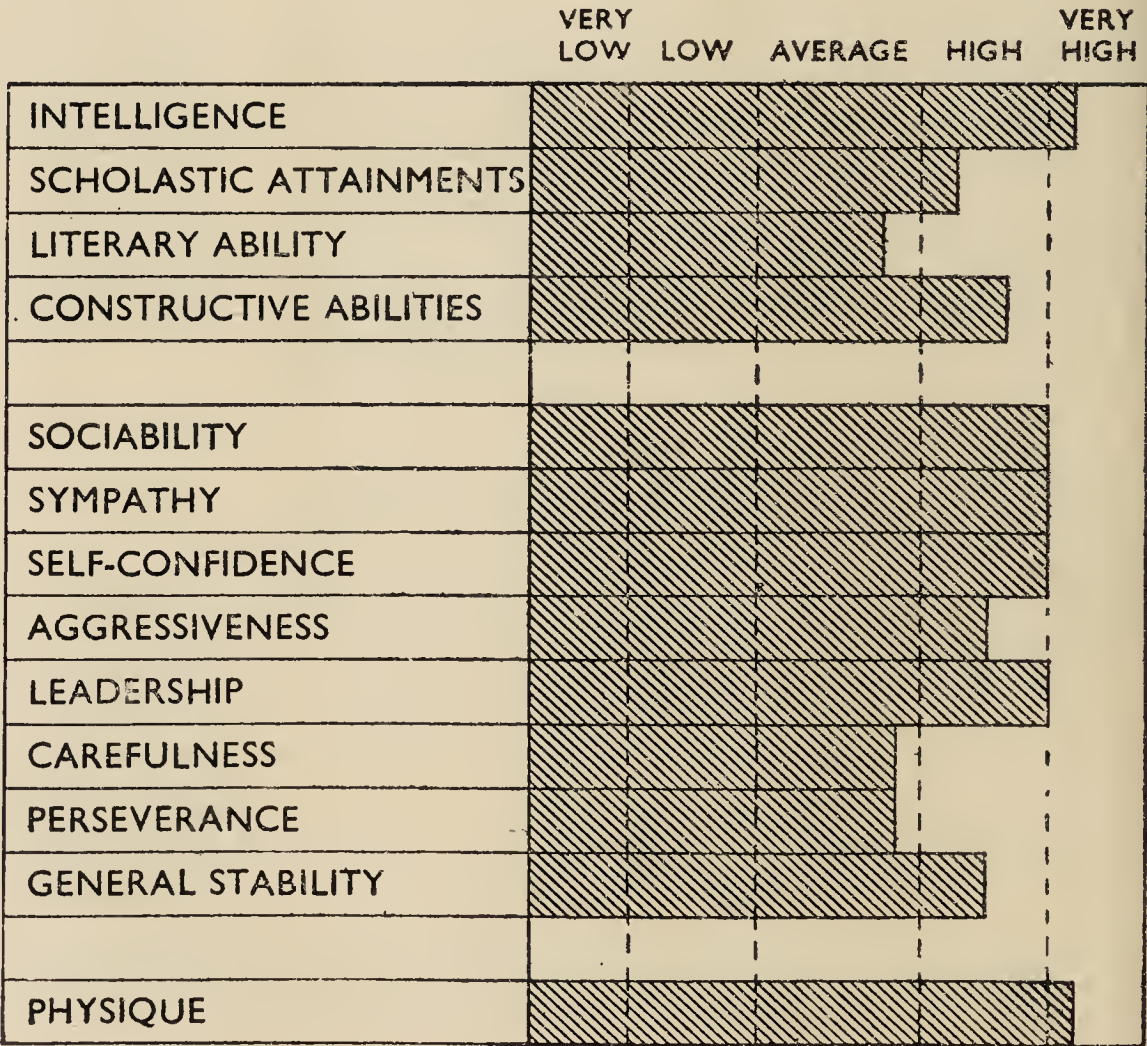
tests for literary ability. And so on. In all of them—except in the tests for literary ability—the method of marking is standardized. By adopting this procedure the psychologist is able to eliminate his own whims and fancies from the scoring and is able to compare fairly accurately any particular individual’s score with the average score for people of his (or her) age and type of education.

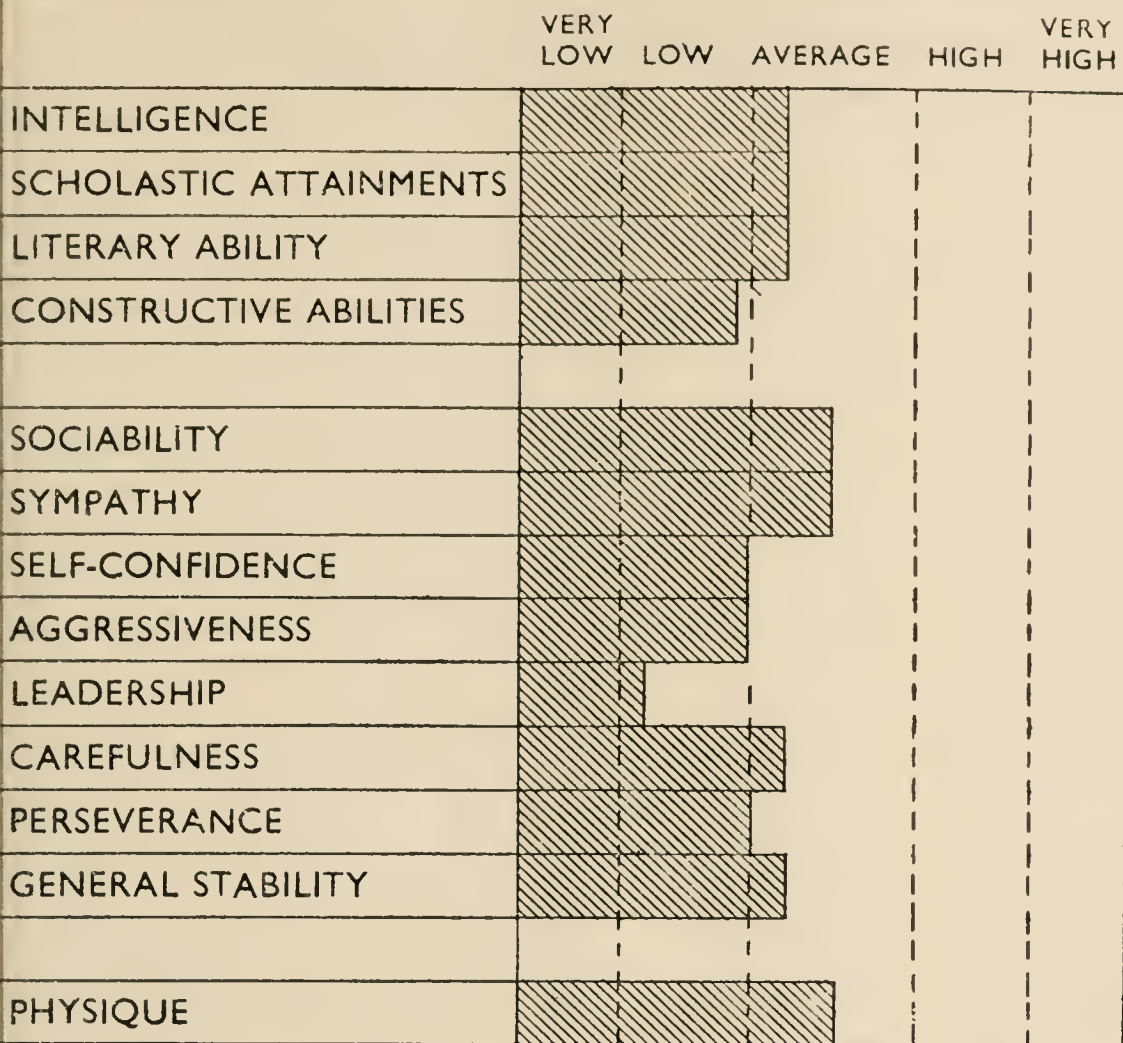
The Importance of Temperament

But test results are not in themselves a sufficient basis for the giving of vocational guidance. No one realizes more thoroughly than does the psychologist that people of all ages have many important characteristics which cannot yet be measured by means of tests.* Leadership qualities, for example, may prove to be of far more value in determining a boy’s vocational success than any amount of intellectual ability. Neatness and cheerfulness may play a greater part in the promotion of a

* See, for example, Dr. Angus Macrae’s important new book, *Talents and Temperaments* (Nisbet, 5s.)—an extremely interesting and non-technical survey of the whole problem. It is intended primarily for parents and teachers.

This boy wished to become an Army officer. His ambition was understandable, for he was active and of very good physique, fond of sport and distinctly a leader. He seemed to have the makings of an excellent schoolmaster, and he was advised to consider this profession as an alternative to a military career. He became a bank clerk. He writes: ‘The work is too easy—there are no problems which I am allowed to solve for myself. . . . I heartily dislike being servile. . . . My self-confidence seems to be rather waning.’





A psychological picture of a boy who was the son of a dentist and who wished to follow his father's profession. There appeared to be various objections to this course. In particular, he lacked manual dexterity and did not seem very well equipped temperamentally for the handling of human nature. A clerical occupation was suggested, and the boy has made good progress as an insurance clerk.

salesman than any ability to give reasoned replies to the complaints of customers.

All these 'temperamental qualities'—as they are called—must be given due weight, and we cannot ignore their existence just because we do not at present happen to have good tests for them. The psychologist's task of assessing them is usually aided considerably by the help he receives from parents and teachers. They have normally had far more and far better opportunities of observation than the psychologist, and by answering carefully his exploratory questions they can do a great deal to help him.

The Value of Vocational Examinations

At the end of the vocational examination the psychologist is nearly always able to make useful recommendations about the kind of occupation in which the boy or girl is likely to be most successful. He does not claim to be infallible, of course; but he does claim that if he has the wholehearted co-operation of parents and teachers he is usually able to give more

reliable advice than could be given by most parents or teachers working alone.

Some months ago the National Institute of Industrial Psychology published an account of a 'follow-up' of those boys and girls who were examined in the years 1927 and 1928. It showed that of those who had followed the advice offered, more than 80 per cent were well satisfied with their work: of those who had *not* followed it, less than 40 per cent were satisfied. That is not a perfect result, obviously, but even the most sceptical must agree that it is a very encouraging one.

Most of the boys and girls who apply to the Institute for vocational guidance are between the ages of sixteen and nineteen, but there are many younger people too. Sometimes, in fact, quite young children come to be examined. It is not easy to give the very young ones *vocational* guidance, but it is often possible to give hints about points in their general education and leisure activities which call for particular attention.

THE NOVEL AS A FACTOR IN EDUCATION

ANN BRIDGE

THIS question of the novel as a factor in education really hinges on the value of the sympathetic imagination, either in education or in life. The Greeks were profoundly convinced of its value—they regarded the drama as educationally important, and laid stress on the value of the purging of the soul by the pity and terror of imagined events. Drama was the art-form of that age, the natural and inevitable expression of the creative imagination. In this age its place is taken by the novel. Drama exists, but it does not play nearly such an important part in the intellectual life of our time. Listen to one of our greater modern writers:

‘It is the way our sympathy flows and recoils that really determines our lives. And here lies the vast importance of the novel, properly handled. It can inform and lead into new places the flow of our sympathetic consciousness, and it can lead our sympathy away in recoil from things gone dead.’

The value of any human being depends largely on how much awareness and response he can bring to his experience, whatever it is. And Lawrence is right—this awareness and response is stimulated by great works of imaginative art. This is true education—the very word *educere* means to bring out, to lead forth; to develop, in fact, potentialities already there. Direct experience will of course do this too, but often our choice of the direct experience we can present to young people is limited. While we should wish to introduce them to life, to the world as it is and has been, to the rich variety of human nature and the impact on that nature of all human experience, yet we may not possess that seeing eye, that kindling touch, which brings inner realities to life and shows the significance of even trivial actions and events. But great novels spread the panorama of human experience out before us, like a huge and diversified landscape, without limit or restriction. And the persons in novels are convincingly displayed, we often feel them to be more real, we know them better, than the people we meet in real life. Naturally, for an author is usually at pains to present his characters more in-

telligently than we trouble to present our characters to other people. So that, for the young mind particularly, the novel furnishes a valuable introduction to experience.

I always feel that a work of art is, and should be regarded as, an end in itself, and not either as propaganda or instruction. Yet books of imaginative art produce powerful effects, whether we will or no, and it is surely not unwarrantable to make use of them to further a desired end.

Modern psychology teaches us that the imagination is a more powerful agent on human conduct than either will or reason, and I think this is especially true of the young. If we wish to inoculate them with a particular outlook, to press home a point of view, our own remarks may not be received with great enthusiasm. But a work of art will capture the imagination, evading the irritable and obstructive will, and slowly and unobtrusively will do the job for us.

I am now, as you see, coming down to practical politics. I believe that all great art is an education in itself and worth while for its own sake; but I do also believe that parents make unreasonably little use of a most valuable instrument in education in the novel. The whole idea of education is at fault. When we speak of education we are often really thinking in terms of schools. The ‘leading out’ of the Romans we set out to achieve by shutting boys and girls up in a school with herds of their own age and sex, there to accumulate a mass of facts of a particular sort, very precisely defined, which they will then regurgitate at stated intervals in the form of Common Entrance (Boys), School Certificate or Matric. (Boys and Girls), or finally, Responsions or Little-go. They must accumulate the subjects suited to these spasms—and very few others—because there is not time, or they will not regurgitate the required article, and they must be able to regurgitate or they won’t ‘pass’. If they don’t pass, the so-called educational authorities refuse to lead them anywhere at all; whereupon the boys go into garages—what the girls do I don’t know.

Of course people must learn things, but even

in the limited sense of school subjects, the novel can help us enormously. It is surprising how many novels can be hitched on to school work; not only *Westward Ho* and *The Last Days of Pompeii*—much as I love the former. Has it struck you how much industrial history the English novel contains? Begin with *Shirley*; then *Mary Barton*; right down to *Sons and Lovers*, and a very recent book, *Inheritance*. Stanley Weyman is not a great artist, but he was a conscientious craftsman—his *Barlasch of the Guard* will make the young think very differently about the Retreat from Moscow. If you want a boy or girl of seventeen really to see, once for all, the difference between the realist and the romantic school, read them the Waterloo chapters from *Les Misérables* and *La Chartreuse de Parme*—Hugo with his ‘gloire’ and his pathos, Stendhal letting his vivandière make his hero shake hands with a corpse in the road and be very sick! Throw in the *Vanity Fair* chapters, if you like, to illustrate the normal English compromise between Romance and Realism.

Or Nelson, stereotyped national hero that he is. Who can read *The Rover* without getting quite a new picture of him—the harassed small man with a cough and a sore throat, his nerves frayed by suspense, his one eye strained with his perpetual horizon-game of hide-and-seek with the French fleet? And I should like to think that no one will ever ‘take’ Bossuet again in French literature lessons without first engaging the young people’s sympathy by reading those two extraordinarily moving and living passages about him in *Royal Flush*, by Margaret Irwin, particularly the closing scene, where he rushes in, crying ‘Hope, hope!’ and holding out the Cross, to the death-bed of Madame.

There are other aspects of education in which the novel is of value, but I am inclined to think that they are more noticeably effective in the case of girls than in that of boys. I heard this very subject discussed recently, and I listened with the greatest interest. A brilliant lawyer got up and said with great firmness that the important thing in education was to teach people what they *wanted to know*; and that what boys wanted to know was facts about machinery, and precise facts about sex experience. On these subjects, he said, the novel was practically

useless. A lady said with considerable pathos that the young would not read classical novels, and when they read modern ones it made them unsympathetic to their parents’ point of view! And a very large number of people expressed the view that novels did the young more harm than good, because they were nearly always immoral and ‘made them think about love and all that’.

Now these are points that must be taken into account. I want first to emphasize that nothing bad can ever do anyone any good, and bad novels are as injurious as anything else bad. But what is a bad novel? My own feeling is that a novel is good or bad in proportion to its degree of truth and faithfulness to life and human experience. All trash is bad—all the washy mushy full-of-smiles books, full of cheap success, easy sentiment and music-hall happiness, are bad. There are a good many lesser writers to-day who never speak out about immorality, but their books are steeped in sexual sentimentality; their view of life is a false, an easy and therefore a degrading one; whereas the great novelists, like Tolstoi, though they relate boldly ‘immoral acts’, do so with a moving and remorseless austerity, a noble truthfulness. Their view of life is *true*, and therefore no more degrading than life is degrading. Bosanquet in his *History of Æsthetic* draws attention to Plato’s insistence ‘that the core of life shall have justice done to it in the representation of life’. One can hardly have a better touch-stone for the novel. Apply it to some of the lighter reading now often given to young people, because it is ‘nice’. Do these books in their representation of life do justice to the core of life? They are false, sloppy, sentimental and profoundly untrue; they lack art, distinction, dignity and reality. Honestly, I would far rather see a girl of fifteen reading *Anna Karenine* than *Beau Geste*, let alone *The Head Girl at St. Beet’s*. As for ‘thinking about love and all that’—can you stop them?

About reading the classical novels—I think there are one or two important points to bear in mind. Each period has its taste, its *argot*; its prose style and its own sense of the comic. Some writers ‘date’ more than others. Thackeray, for instance, must have been tedious in his own

day, and the crispness of modern prose makes him nearly intolerable now, just as his heavy facetiousness has been killed stone dead by the slim sly modern irony. It is not much good trying to make fifteen-year-olds read him alone. Other writers are more timeless, but in any case the time to start people on the classical novelists is when they are so young that they have not yet been affected by the current 'period taste'. This doesn't happen much before thirteen, does it? And by then what can they not have read? Practically all the Brontës' and Jane Austen, Trollope, Jorrocks, Evelina. And I do not believe that to read great masterpieces in youth 'spoils them', as they say, for later on. I read *Wuthering Heights* (bought by myself for 7d.) when I was thirteen, and I have read it at least once every two years ever since, with ever-deepening appreciation. What you read when young has a double quality—the fervour of the early impression, the magic thrill of the surrendered imagination, mixed in, as the years go on, with

the maturer appreciation of experience. And if this taste for the great masterpieces is acquired in early years, it persists—the youthful mind becomes automatically impatient of slop and trash and swings into George Eliot and the rest. And then the whole rich heritage of English country life is open to you, and the ripe peculiarities of the English character, and you love your own blacksmith because he talks pure Gaskell, and your own covert-side mornings are all mixed up with Somerville and Ross and Whyte-Melville and runs with the Heavy-top. And you come on to your own period ready for the best, finding Eliot over again in R. H. Mottram and the early Virginia Woolf, and a bitterer Stevenson in C. E. Montagu; you see the *pedigree*, as it were, of your Foxhunting Man, your Wilcoxes and Schlegels. If to know and love one's own people and one's own land be a part of education, I do not really see how the new generation is to *be* educated without the novel.

BOYS AND GIRLS

FROM A LECTURE BY H. W. HOWE

BOYS and Girls, how do they differ from one another in character and intelligence; how far can they help one another; what games can they play together; what lessons can they teach each other? These questions will be asked from time to time by all parents, and in this article, which summarizes a lecture given to the Home and School Council, Mr. Howe, headmaster of the School House, Keswick, answers most of them.

Although neither that lecture nor this article should be taken as a discourse in favour of co-education, these observations on boys and girls were made at Keswick, where children of both sexes live together under school conditions.

The Boy and Girl Problem

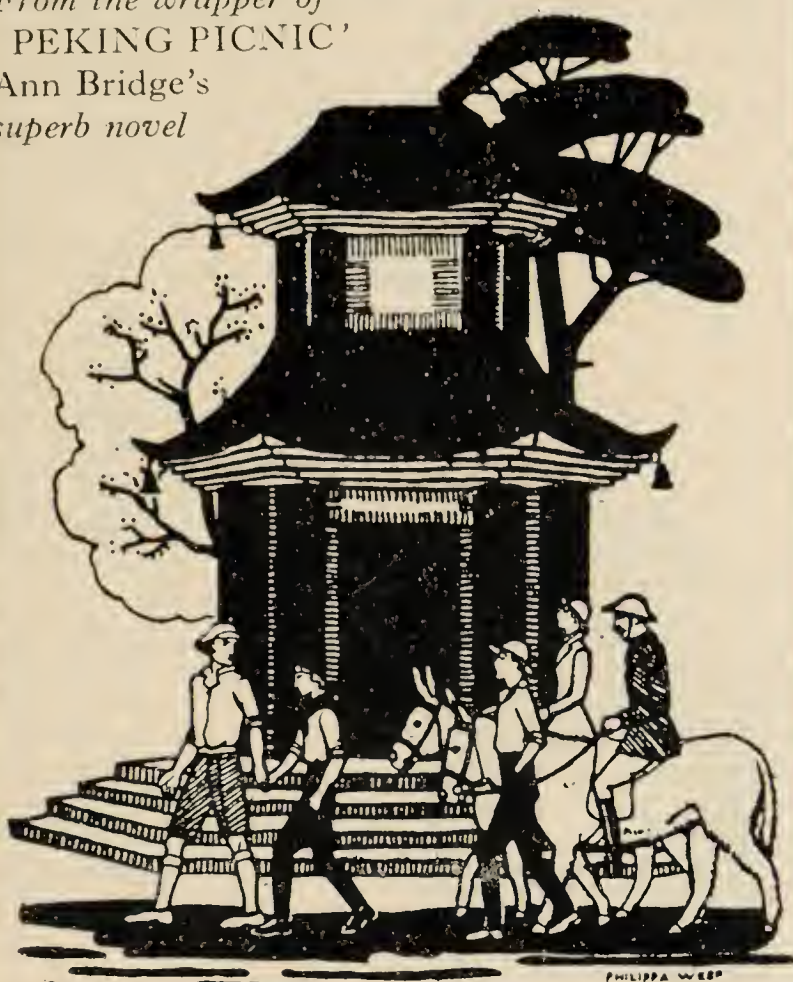
In approaching the boys and girls problem, we can adopt the traditional, if not wholly satisfactory, division of human life into the physical, the intellectual and the moral. How far, for instance, should the obvious physical differences between boys and girls influence



Hiking

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their education, and their unbringing? It seems of little importance that between six and eleven and between fourteen and eighteen the boy has the advantage of the girl in height and weight, and that she is slightly his superior between eleven and fourteen. But it would be fatal to disregard the fact that the girl is physically less strong than the boy, that owing to her thinner blood, she has more tendency to anæmia, and that the earlier age of puberty and the greater variety of its incidence render her more liable to physical and mental strain. Certain inevitable results follow: there are very few forms of physical exercise—except perhaps diving, skating and tennis—in which boys and girls can compete without either overstraining the one or insufficiently developing the other. The boy has been described as an expender of energy and the girl as a conserver, and this is a useful distinction to bear in mind.

The varying rates of growth in boys and girls mean that they do not always reach the same stage of mental development at the same time. When boys and girls are educated together, it

is generally accepted that in the First Examination Form, the girls are older than the boys, and this difference is allowed for in the award of State scholarships. But although the importance of not overstraining the girl, particularly at the age of puberty, should never be underestimated, too much stress is sometimes laid upon it. School life to-day at the examination stage severely taxes mental and physical energy and probably puts the girl to a more serious test than she has ever had to undergo before: yet she seems to stand up to it at least as well as the boy.

Instinct and Intellect in Boys and Girls

If we take the psychological differences between boys and girls, we find that in both the same basic instincts are developed, though to different degrees. The maternal and protective instinct, and the instinct of fear, for instance, are much more evident in the girls, and pugnacity, acquisitiveness and constructiveness (one might add destructiveness) are clearly more highly developed in the boy. On the intellectual level, the girl is usually much more receptive and far less experimentally inclined than the boy. She relies much more on her memory, and is an adept at showing up in neat notebooks an exact copy of what she thinks her teacher has said to her, and what she therefore imagines will please him most.

It is the nature of the male to prefer abstract thought, and of the female to trust to her feelings. We may therefore expect girls to leap to conclusions, and we shall not be disappointed. It is also a commonplace that a girl's strong suit is languages and literature, and her weak one, mathematics.

Subjects in which the Girl Excels

The girl's superiority at languages and literature is better proved than her weakness at science. Results at Keswick show that girls are definitely better in English, French and Latin. In Latin for instance, the girl is often more accurate: the boy is more adventurous in his grammar and less restrained in his guesses. And in literature, he is too apt to judge entirely by the contents: he takes an unnatural delight in the physical details of wounded warriors in Homer, and is left

strangely cold by the deeper beauties of Greek drama. The girl on the other hand, centres her interest in persons, and is not ashamed to show her appreciation of the imaginative side of literature or art, while the boy—up to sixteen at any rate—is a philistine. This attitude was well expressed by a football captain who, after a cursory glance at a collection of coloured reproductions of the great masters which the Art Master had just hung in the corridor, leant easily upon the window-sill and remarked: 'Well, really, sir, is that the best you can do?'

Difference in Character

But it is on the side of character and morals that boys and girls have most to teach each other, for each sex can rub the uncomfortable angles off the other. It would not, for example, be a regrettable loss to the adolescent girl if she learnt that giggling is not the best way of indulging her risible faculty; nor to the boy if he found that jokes can be funny without being salacious. The two sexes have their own appreciation of humour and their own vices in connection with it, and their association tends to cut off the ragged edges of humour and to make it the fine spiritual force it ought to be.

Again, the girl is by nature more spiritually inclined, more open to devotional and religious appeal than the boy, just because she is more appreciative and more guided by her emotions. She is more sympathetic and more conscientious, has a greater sense of responsibility, takes her duties more seriously. On the other hand, she is less 'sporting', less large-minded

and less generous in her judgments, less capable of feeling a corporate spirit and therefore more prone to form 'cliques', and to be more fickle in friendships. Your boy is on the whole the easier to deal with; he is less inclined to impute motives and to misunderstand simple orders: he faces punishment without resentment and bears no

malice: he is less inclined to brood over apparent injustice and is less exacting in his ideas of what is fair, and he craves less for appreciation and admiration. But a comparative estimate of boys and girls is always difficult—the exceptions seem almost as numerous as the rules.



Handicraft

Education and Adjustment to Life

In considering the upbringing of boys and girls, we must constantly bear in mind the many-sidedness of life to-day: to make a success of it in

any real sense, the boy and the girl must make as many adjustments as the operator in the telephone exchange. Education should offer as varied an environment as possible, so that practice in the art of new adjustments may be given from the first. Our society to-day might almost appear to an outside observer as a house in which almost every misconnection had been made, so that to ring the bell, you have to turn on the bath, and to get hot water, to shout down the telephone. Obviously, a better understanding between the sexes will not immediately bring order out of chaos, but much might be done if men and women would bring their complementary abilities to bear on putting the world to rights.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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MARCH ISSUE

ADVENTURES IN EDUCATION—
BARKING, PART II.

EDUCATION FOR THE UNKNOWN FUTURE
William Boyd

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES
Hamilton Pearson

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

IN an age of swift and often startling change we are apt to overlook the slower processes of evolution. We come to accept the pressman's classification of events into 'News' and 'Not News', and so to ignore certain unobtrusive and unadvertised efforts which may prove, in the long run, to be of more radical importance than other more dazzling happenings.

Evolution not Revolution There has been no catastrophic change in English state school education, but there has been, particularly in the last few years, a quickening of the pace of its evolution. Most people, both in England and abroad, have little idea of the extent to which the whole tone and spirit, in theory and practice, have been and are being changed in English schools.

A very important factor in the situation is that a new type of Director of Education is being appointed—one familiar with the technique of teaching and possessed of wide culture and a far-sighted conception of his duties. A similar change is taking place in the staff of the Board of Education, including of course the Inspectorate. Careful reading of any of the recent publications of the Board reveals this change. Their suggestions and their whole outlook show a growing realization both of the needs of childhood and of the bearing of education on the needs of the community. Moreover they are progressive, and give freedom to teachers to evolve their own ideas.

This is a peculiar feature of English state schools—that so much of the planning and working out of schemes is left to individual head teachers and class teachers. Since the beginning of the century no very hard and fast syllabuses and schemes of work have been imposed, such as were laid down in the old Code, and such as

are still the rule in many other countries. This gives scope to the resourcefulness and enthusiasm of the individual teacher. Where he is a true educationist he can work out his ideas unfettered, and an increasing number of teachers, particularly in Infants' and Primary Schools, are coming to take advantage of this freedom. Consequently there are more individual differences between English schools than between those of most other countries.

Buildings This generation has inherited a large number of school buildings which, though probably suited to their time, are most unsuitable now. The economic crisis is making it impossible to replace these as quickly as desirable, though something has been done in this direction. Between September, 1929, and September, 1932, the number of schools on the black list was reduced in England from 1,531 to 1,264, and in Wales from 184 to 158.

It is interesting to see that where new schools are being built they are being planned on quite new lines, as for instance the six new elementary schools at Barking, Sawston Village College, the Derbyshire schools and many others. These new school buildings have no longer the hideous prison-like aspect of the older schools. They are planned to meet the present and even the future demands of the newer ideas in education. The old type of courtyard is giving place to gardens and larger playgrounds are being added. A great many of the class-rooms are of the open-air type and lighting and ventilation are being given really serious consideration. It has at last been realized that the environment of a child, particularly of a child coming from a poverty-stricken home, should be not only hygienic but æsthetic.

The Hadow Scheme *The Report on the Education of the Adolescent*, 1926 (known as the Hadow Report), envisaged great and beneficent changes in the organization of school life. The stages in education are now regarded as the Nursery and Infant stage up to 7, the Junior or Primary stage from 7 to 11, and the post-Primary or Secondary stage from 11 onwards.

By making a break at 11 plus, the Report laid down the principle that some kind of advanced instruction should be provided for *all* children above that age, and that the nature of this instruction should depend upon 'the different interests and abilities of the pupils, to which the bias or objective of each school will naturally be related.' (p. 77.)

Although a great deal has been accomplished already in the way of reorganization, the movement is only in its initial stages and requires to be handled with extraordinary care and watchfulness and complete disinterestedness, if the proposals of the Report are to be carried out in the spirit in which they were intended. The Infants' Schools have long been centres of happiness as well as of training; but while the Junior stage holds great possibilities of true education, there is danger of its being overshadowed by the demands of the scholarship examination which will determine to what type of post-Primary school the pupil is to proceed at 11 plus.

The post-Primary stage still awaits very careful thinking out, but here and there the headmaster of one of the new 'Modern' schools has realized his opportunity and his responsibility and has made of the school under his charge a place where both the minds and characters and special aptitudes of his pupils receive the training that they need.

The curriculum is being considerably widened so as to include not only the three R's and economic subjects, but more general culture—music, art, handwork, speech-training and dramatic work. As we showed in our last issue, modern languages are beginning to find a definite place in post-Primary education and efforts are being made to bring the activities of the school into relation with the outer world. It might be thought that this would be rendered

more difficult by the fact that no sectarian or political questions may be debated in English state schools. This we feel to be a sound principle on the whole, especially if it can be combined with the wide infusion of social studies and the teaching of history from an international, not a narrowly nationalistic, point of view.

Human Relationships But the biggest change in English state school education is the changing relationship between teachers and children and teachers and parents. Modern psychology is gradually permeating the schoolroom and the old discipline of compulsion and fear is giving place to self-discipline based upon the child's realization of his own powers, and upon the demands that society makes upon these. Corporal punishment, though still legal in England, is finding less and less place in the best type of state school. In fact fewer punishments of any kind are employed, since, with the right type of school administration, more humane relationships between teacher and taught, and sufficient richness of material, they become unnecessary.

There is also a slowly growing attempt to interest parents in what the schools are trying to do for their children and so to gain their active co-operation and to link up the home and school backgrounds of the pupil.

Where the progress of English state school education does not reach its highest possibilities, the lag is due to three main causes: the teachers themselves, who, having been trained in old methods, find it difficult sometimes to grasp their new opportunities; the examination system which is still a dead weight in so many schools; and also a certain inertia due to the fact that education has always tended to conserve the existing order because parents are apt to demand from the school the same kind of thing that they themselves found in it.

If English state school education is to evolve swiftly in the direction outlined by the Hadow Report, we require chiefly reforms in teacher training, and a wider recruitment of state school teachers; drastic reforms in the examination system and a consequent broadening of the curriculum.

Adventures in Education—I

Barking, Part I

A. J. LYNCH

THE greatest adventure in education in Barking is to be seen in the fine buildings in which it is carried on. And the next greatest is the way in which, following, in the main, the recommendations of the Consultative Committee's *Report on the Education of the Adolescent*, educational facilities have been efficiently organized in the area. Barking is one of the few areas in England where 'reorganization' may be said to be complete.

Of the buildings, most of which are recent, six were formally declared open by Sir Henry Hadow himself a month or two ago. It can be truthfully said of them that they are delightful in conception and pleasing in construction. Most of the schools are of the quadrangular type enclosing grassed courts, in the centre of which may be found either a sundial or a

sunk pond. Around the 'quads' run verandahs on which class-rooms of the open-air type abut. All the older schools have been reconditioned and brought up to date. Each school has its adjacent playing field in addition to the usual playground, each is constructed on open-air principles and each room in the school has its own colour scheme. In the Infants' Schools the colour scheme extends to the graded furniture. Desks of the old type have been almost entirely abolished and every child comfortably accommodated with what in effect is a chair-seat before a slightly sloping table. The science rooms and workshops with which each Senior School is provided are spacious and well-designed for their purpose.

Of the organization it can be said that there are schools of every type—Infants'; Junior



Eastbury Senior School

Boys', Junior Girls', Junior Mixed; Senior Boys', Senior Girls', Senior Mixed (Central). In addition there is a Special Open-air School for the Physically or Mentally Defective.

The school area of Barking comprises a large section of a Housing Estate (Becontree) which falls within the borough. Families have come to the estate, largely as a result of slum clearances, from every quarter of London and particularly from congested areas like Mile End, Bow, Kennington, and so forth. There is therefore, at the moment, a heavy task confronting the schools of Barking. For, while avoiding any attempt to create uniformity in the schools, there is nevertheless the task of reconciling the varied interests and prejudices of a more or less cosmopolitan school population with the need for a spirit that shall symbolize the new school. The difficulty of welding these interests within a short period—and it must be remembered that most of the schools are not more than a year old—is apparent as one passes from school to school. Speaking generally, it may be said that the internal arrangements of the schools are not yet in step with the efficient provision in the way of building and equipment that has been made by a generous authority under the guidance of enlightened officials. But that may come in time. When the two are in step, great things may be looked for.

Infants' Schools

The Infants' departments are the usual happy centres of child life, and the methods of teaching based, in the main, on individual work. It was interesting to be shown how, in the teaching of reading for example, progress was made from point to point. There was no blind following of any particular method; it was obvious that the best elements of all methods were combined. Perhaps the most striking thing—in some schools more than in others—was the naïvety, the unconsciously free manner in which some of the little ones would engage in spontaneous conversation, or insist on showing their drawings. One school—there may be others which have them—produced its percussion band. To see and hear how well the beat of the drums and triangles could be synchronized with the rhythm of the music played on the piano, and the whole conducted by one of their number,

was a real delight. When one reflects that each teacher has about fifty little ones to train, and must be ready for any situation that may arise—and they do arise with great frequency with children of the Infants' School age—one can only admire those who do this work with such skill and enthusiasm.

Junior and Senior Schools

The Junior Schools are either Boys', Girls', or Mixed. The last named are co-educational throughout. There is no attempt here to segregate the sexes entirely so that the boys sit on one side of the room and the girls on the other, as is sometimes done. The organization in all the schools is on an age basis. Thus, in a large school there would be from 100 to 150 in each of the age groups. The age group is then sub-divided into A, B and C sections according to ability in the two main subjects, English and Arithmetic. It was not clear that a child might easily swim from the C or B streams to the A stream. This was due perhaps partly to the fact that the schools had been running only for a year and therefore no considerable body of experience had emerged, and partly because the internal arrangements had not yet settled down. It would, however, in the writer's opinion, be a calamity of the worst kind if a child were allowed to regard himself throughout his school career as of a C or B type. It is perhaps a little difficult, if not impertinent, to offer advice where so much fine work is being done, but if the case of the 'whole child' be considered it is quite obvious that an organization based on results in two subjects alone does not take full account of the real situation. On the other hand, so much depends on the type of teacher whose duty it is to handle the various groups. It was a matter of very great interest to the writer to find that nearly 50 per cent of the teaching staff in Barking left their Colleges less than four years ago.

Attention was drawn to a questionnaire, addressed to these young teachers, and compiled by the Director, which sought to ascertain in what respects their College course had or had not been helpful to them. The last two questions show the nature of the inquiry: 'What, in your opinion, represents the biggest difficulty confronting young teachers fresh from College?'

Have you any suggestions whereby the Authority could give greater help to the young teacher beginning in its service?' Such an inquiry is not only an encouragement to the young teacher to open his heart, but it indicates a real relation between the staff and the powers that be.

The Senior Schools are similar in internal organization to the Junior Schools—the A, B, and C streams are kept flowing. In these departments, however, real attempts are being made to meet, in some way or other, the varied needs and interests of pupils through the science rooms, workshops, and the art rooms. There is also a fairly liberal provision of books which, in time, will doubtless be brought into greater use. School libraries have not yet had time to materialize, but it was gratifying to find how large a number of the pupils of the Senior Schools were ticket-holders at the Public Libraries.

Workshops and Science Rooms

The workshops are of the usual woodwork type, and the work produced of a high quality. The art rooms are spacious and adequate for their purpose. The science rooms are an excellent departure from the old 'chemmy-lab' and aim at bringing the work done in them nearer to reality so far as boys of the Senior School age are concerned. No one who comes into close contact with such boys can be under any doubt as to their interest in machinery—first in trains and trams and, later, in motors of all kinds. This interest is exploited to the full in the science rooms, for the work is centred round an actual motor cycle. The action of all its parts, and the principles involved, cover a very wide field, and here is the real thing which can be dismantled and rebuilt again

and again with growing understanding.

A very interesting consequence of this method of treating the study of science is the compilation of a text-book. This is done by each pupil filing the notes supplied him by the teacher, and perhaps adding some of his own. The file, which is constantly being added to, is an original yet entirely appropriate summary of the work taken in the course.

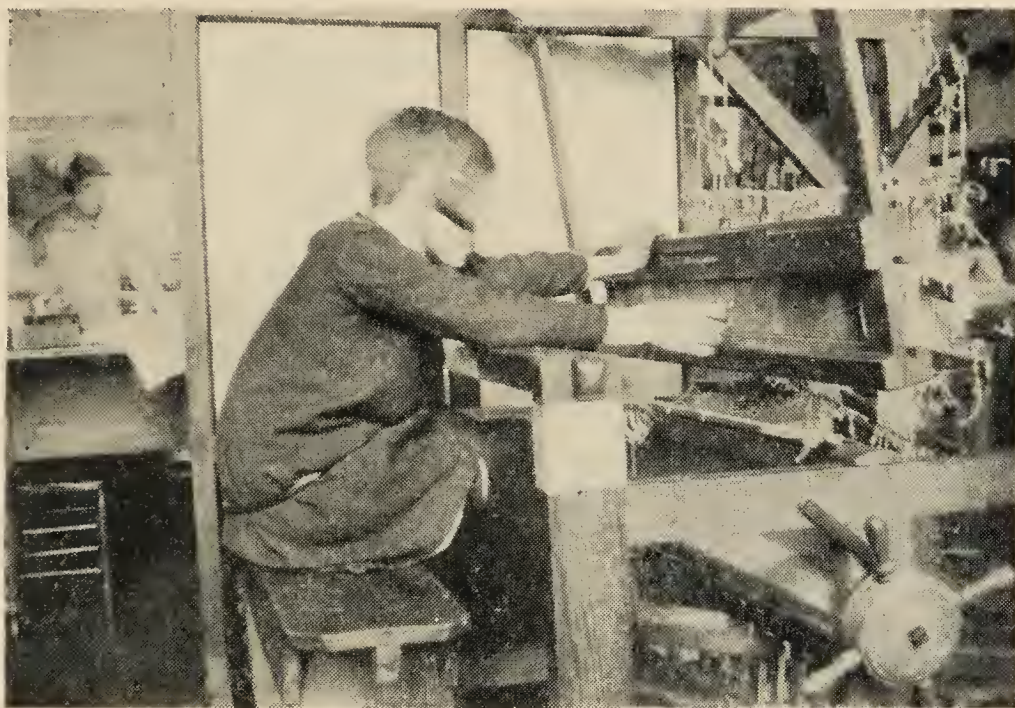
This method of treatment it will be seen implies a practical handling of tools, and is not dependent on a mere study of theory. Besides

this manipulation of tools and parts, and the courses in woodwork, 'practical' work is also taken in connection with book-binding and lino-cutting, and shows extremely good results.

Craft Rooms for Girls

In one of the Girls' Schools the 'craft' room was one of the best examples it has been

the writer's good fortune to see. Spinning and weaving in many of its branches are the main work carried on each day. The room contained two good-sized looms, at which it was a delight to see girls working. The results were excellent. Other crafts, like rug-making and book-binding, are also carried on. It was interesting to note that the work was not entirely confined to girls who failed with some of the ordinary school subjects. It was intriguing to be assured that the ordinary work of many of the girls showed a rise of as much as 40 per cent in accuracy, due, it was believed, to greater activity on their part, which for some of the pupils, if domestic subjects such as cooking, laundry, and needlework be included, amounted to as much as 50 per cent of their time. The whole scheme of work is planned with real vision, and the results as judged by interest and achievement gave great pleasure. It is a fine attempt to fit the



Weaving

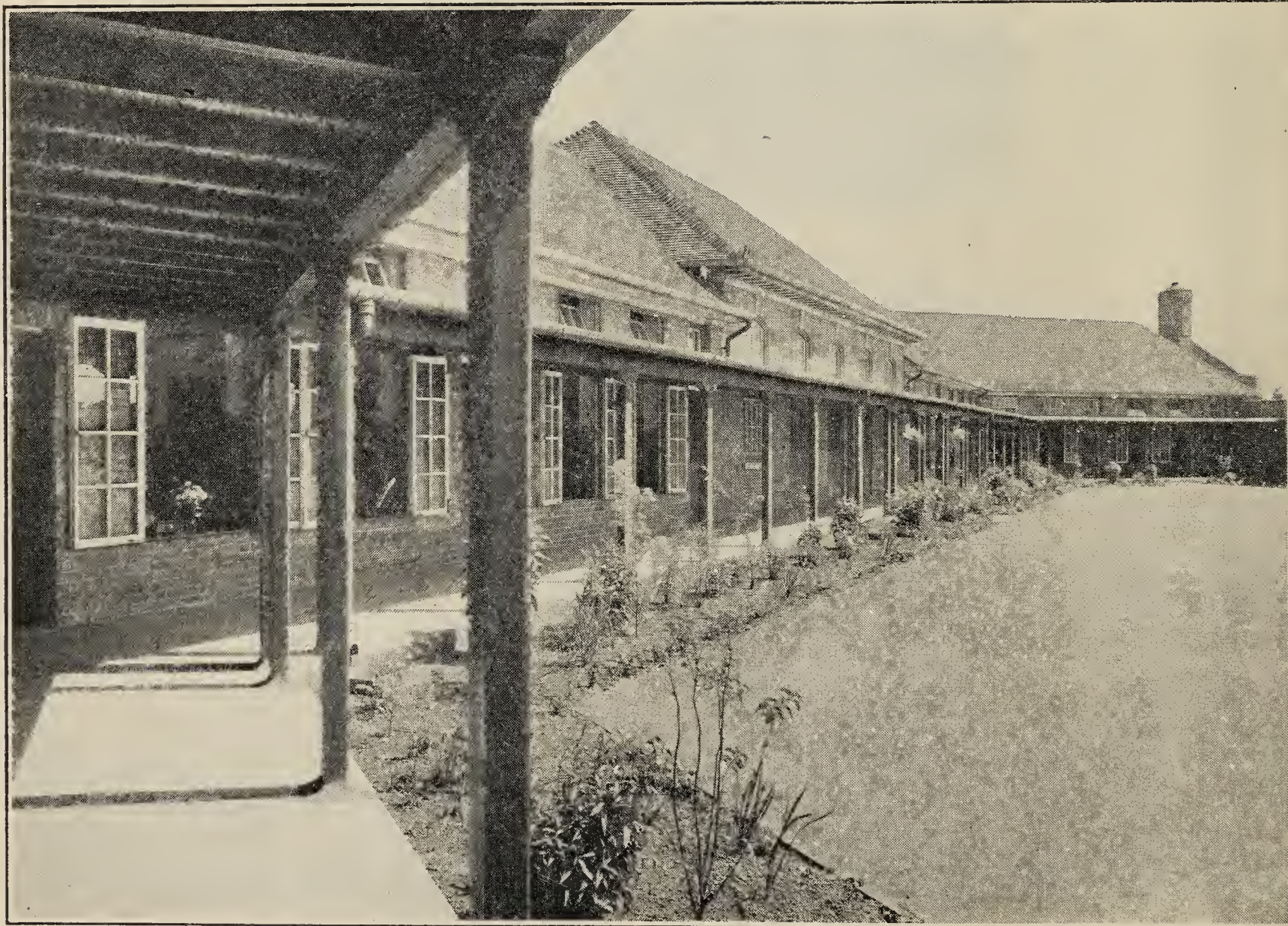
school to the child, which, by the way, was the central idea at the back of the mind of the Consultative Committee when it made its report.

Another Girls' School is adventuring into what, in this country, is an almost unexplored field—that of Social Studies or Social Science. It is almost platitudinous to say that in the teaching practice of the past the boundaries of subjects like Geography, History, and even English in relation to either of these, were difficult to define. Attempts have been made in America and elsewhere, to co-ordinate subjects like these under a comprehensive title and treatment. Well, here is a genuine attempt to do this. Geography, History, Civics, Sociology, and English are combined into a well-devised scheme with definite aims. The experiment is too young yet to say with any assurance what it may become, but it is clear that it holds within it tremendous possibilities.

The Open-air School which deals in one centre with the physically defective, the

mentally defective, and the ailing child is an exceedingly well-organized effort either to prevent further trouble, as in the case of the ailing child, or to do everything possible to cure trouble, or to train for usefulness those who are more or less permanent wrecks. Every material provision is made to make the work effective. Shower-baths, a dining-room, wood-work and boot-repairing shops are there. The work is a difficult one, but it is carried on in a fine spirit.

It only remains in this article to say a word about the Central School. It is selective, and the pupils remain till they are 16. They are selected by means of a test; school records are all considered. In many respects, the school is to all intents and purposes what is usually understood as a secondary school. A second language (French) is taken. The organization is similar to that in the Junior and Senior Schools and the House system is very thoroughly worked for weekly, monthly and yearly results.



Eastbury Infants' School

Statesmanship, Education and Public Opinion

An abridgment of an address given by Lord Allen of Hurtwood, at a meeting of the English Section of the New Education Fellowship at the Conference of Educational Associations, University College, London, on 5th January, 1933.

IN the first place, may I say that I come to this meeting as a messenger from the world of politics to those of you who are concerned with producing the new generation of citizens, to put to you certain ideas which I see as a politician, which I may see wrongly, but which none the less I feel to be significant, and to beg of you that you will consider as teachers the importance of the political problems which I am going to discuss with you.

Some definition of education is imperative at the outset. I can only give you a definition of education which is going to characterize my own speech, and which you will find is a very simple one.

That definition is this: The business of education is to cause men and women to become aware of themselves and of the world in which they live. That may seem a very simple definition, but I hope to prove that it is a very important one.

We are told by every speaker at every meeting that we are living in a world crisis. I am getting rather tired of that statement, especially when I find that most people describe this crisis as one which ought to lead us to despair. I would admit that we are passing through a world crisis, but I am not prepared to admit that it should cause enlightened people to despair.

The Crisis—and the Human Spirit

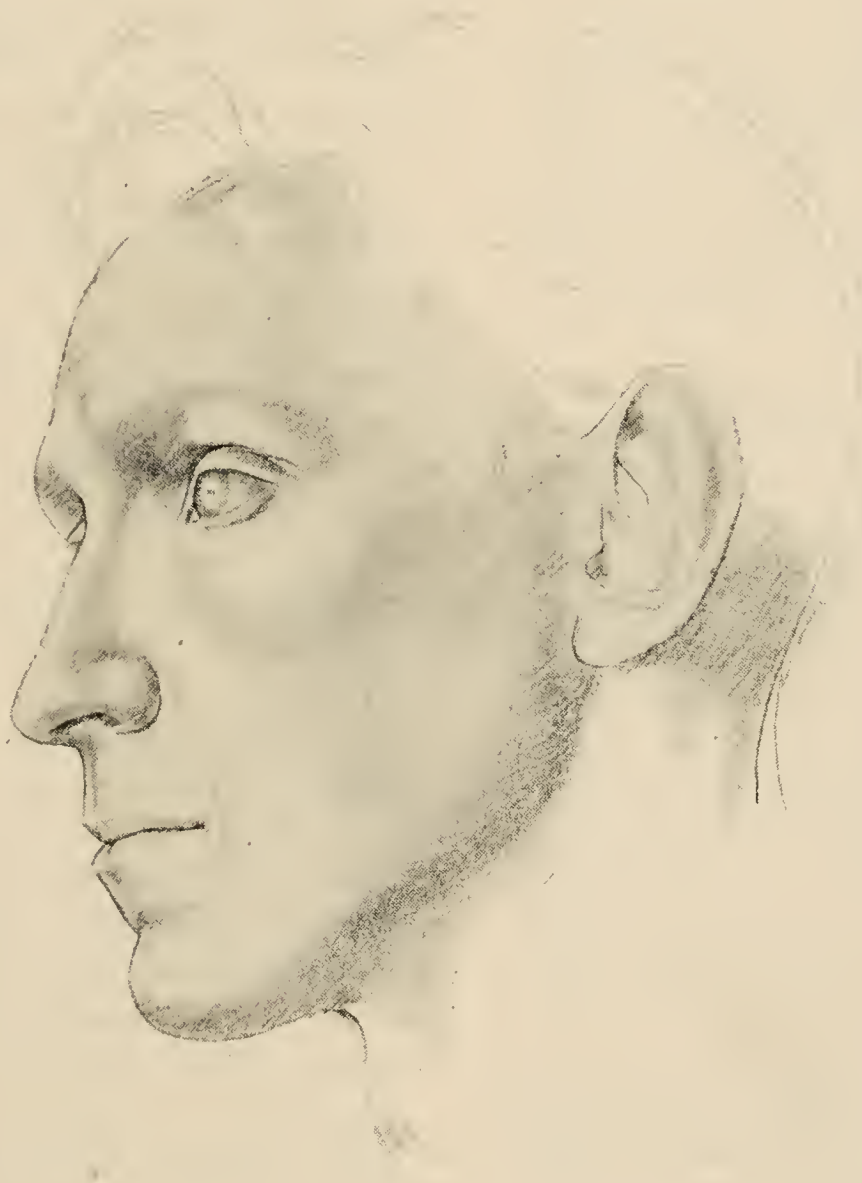
People tell you that the crisis is concerned with this and then that aspect of the world; concerned with economics, concerned with problems of world law and order. That is true, but it is not in those problems that the crisis consists. I put it to you that the crisis through which the world is passing to-day is one concerned with the human spirit, and the power of the human mind to control its own destiny.

Mankind, after travelling for many thousands of years, changing, developing, going forward, going backward, stands in the twentieth century in sight of the Promised Land, a Promised Land of reasonable organization, human freedom and indi-

vidual happiness of which civilization has dreamt for thousands of years. We are facing a crisis just when the Promised Land is within sight because, like the Israelites, we are uncertain how to complete the remaining stages of the journey.

There have been many crises in the past, and politicians have looked at those previous crises in various ways. I want to tell you how I see it, having mixed recently very near the centre of political life.

First of all there are the technicalities of the



problems which themselves require to be unravelled. But there is also the question of public opinion, and I have noticed increasingly, as I have listened to statesmen arguing with each other about the problems, that they are more and more turning to each other and saying: 'What do you think will be the attitude of public opinion if we deal with this or that problem in this or that way?' And I am convinced that, contrary to the general belief, there is to-day nothing complicated in the actual problems which have to be unravelled.

We are told that it is almost impossible for the average person to comprehend or to understand modern politics, so complicated have they become. But I put it to you that the problems are simple as compared with those which have faced statesmen in the past. Let me explain why I think that to be the case.

In primitive days and in the years which succeeded primitive days, man looked at the natural world in which he lived. He looked up at the stars, he observed the famines, the plagues and the tempests which drew across his experience, and he felt absolutely helpless in the presence of natural phenomena. To-day it is quite the reverse. Man is now informed with regard to Nature as he has never been before. Modern production, distribution and transport have become so illuminated with knowledge that there is no doubt but that we can handle every problem which faces us perfectly easily if only we are prepared to do so. That is where public opinion comes in.

The world to-day is full of machinery capable of producing goods. The world is also to-day full of governmental machinery. Within our own country, as compared with what was true in the Middle Ages or before, we have an enormous net-work of Government—local government, national government, economic government, and also in the world at large we have a great international machine of government which has never been at the disposal of man at any time before the war. Our business is to work all this machinery.

The problem of the twentieth century lies with the imagination and the will of man. It is concerned with public opinion, and if public opinion is the key, education is the most essential instrument placed in our hands to

influence that public opinion in dealing with problems which are simple in themselves.

Violence versus Reason

That this has been realized is, I think, quite clear when you consider the major controversy of this age. It is: Will mankind complete its journey by violence or by reason? Are we to say to-day: The tangle which confronts us in the last few miles of our journey is so thick that we cannot hope to get through except by cutting our way by the use of violence; or shall we say: At long last reason is available to man: at long last reason has become dominant as an instrument which can influence affairs: it is no longer necessary to use violence in order to complete our journey.

Now there is one thing I must prove in order to establish this latter hope. I have got to prove that there has taken place in recent times something which is equivalent to a revolution in the position of mind in the world, and directly anyone talks about a revolution in the position of mind, he is walking on very dangerous ground.

We are told that we cannot change human nature, but apparently we can change other aspects of nature. For instance, nobody would deny that we talk about the industrial revolution. I do not mind what you mean when you use the word revolution in that phrase 'the industrial revolution', but whatever you do mean I am going to claim that it can be equally true of the area of the mind.

Supposing you agree that you cannot change material nature, yet you still talk of the industrial revolution; and I presume you mean that, even if the material world in which we live is incapable of change, it is not incapable of recombining itself in various ways to produce results radically different from any result in the past. You can apply power to machines and produce something which we call an industrial revolution. Why cannot we claim the same with regard to a revolution in the mind? I maintain that we can.

Supposing you were to say that human nature is what it has always been, an expression of the claw and tooth struggle for life. All I can say is that if you had been coming into this hall a

hundred and fifty years ago, and you were a man, you would have had your sword at your side, which you would have used to settle matters of right and wrong between yourself and your neighbour.

To-day you do not do that. To-day you have your police force outside, to whom you have transferred that expression of human nature.

Progress—Material and Spiritual

We have in fact passed steadily through from the moment when man first discovered the use of fire to the time when the wheel became a new instrument of transport and right on to the age of modern machinery. Similarly, on the mental plane we are passing from an age in which human nature expressed itself in a primitive way. We have been accompanied all the way through with inventions in the mental world—corresponding to the wheel in the material world—the alphabet, the invention of printing, and now wireless and broadcasting, the great new instrument concerned with the mind, which has come into the possession of mankind in the twentieth century.

If I can prove that there has been a revolution in the position of mind, I shall quickly be able to establish contact between my argument and the political world. But, first of all, I must describe the nature of the revolution which has taken place in the area of mind. It consists in the fact that mind in the twentieth century has become an *independent* agency of great power.

Your Marxian always asserts that the mind is conditioned by economic circumstances. Your Freudian and your psycho-analytical philosopher emphasize over and over again that the mind is conditioned by forces of which we are not ourselves conscious, and that to talk about mind becoming an independent agency is either to prove that you are not very intelligent yourself or that you are being driven by some force you do not completely apprehend. I may be open to those accusations, but if I can prove, as I think I can, that mind has become to-day more conscious of its own independence, I shall then be able to submit to you that that which is more conscious than it has been, that which is

freer than it has been, will in consequence have a greater capacity for independent influence than it had before.

Has Science Psycho-analysed Human Mind?

What does psycho-analysis tell us? It takes the human personality, and by a long process and a highly skilled technique, it gradually frees the personality from certain fetters, from complexes which have originated in the earlier years of our life, and by that technical process the personality of an individual gradually becomes less fettered than it was before.

Is it not also arguable that science has psycho-analysed the human mind itself in the twentieth century?

For thousands of years, as I pointed out, man was helpless in the presence of nature. He could not understand the world in which he lived. That condition of helplessness not only affected his material life, but it also affected his mind; and so his mind expressed itself in certain ways, and created the age of superstition and magic.

Thousands of years ago, when you sowed your crops, you sacrificed a human being because you believed that that was the best way to make your crops fruitful. Then you came to the Middle Ages, in which the Inquisition and the torturing of man in the name of religion was the expression of superstition derived from a sense of the helplessness of man in the presence of nature.

To-day, though magic and superstition still dominate some of our minds, things have none the less changed. Your industrial revolution came. You suddenly began to see man assuming control over nature. He then found, not that he understood everything in the world, but that he understood a great deal more than he ever thought he could, and he found himself in command first of this natural phenomenon and then that. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, owing to this command over nature which science gave him on the material plane, he emerged from that phase of experience which made him feel himself helpless in the presence of nature. Immediately that change took place on the material plane, it affected his mind, just as his previous helplessness had affected it in primitive days. Thus, science has to-day made it possible for the mind of man to become

liberated, independent and consequently powerful, because to a large extent he no longer has the sensation of helplessness in relation to the natural world.

That, I think, can already be proved. Even in the last thirty or forty years the working of science, not only on material phenomena but on spiritual and mental phenomena, is clear. People to-day approach questions of religious toleration, and questions of sex and marriage, in an entirely new fashion as compared with what was the case even in my own childhood. The relationship between men and women, and the status of women, are completely different as compared with fifty years ago, and now the relationship between adult and child is also suddenly beginning to change completely. Our minds are learning to observe surrounding phenomena in a detached way, and can therefore operate more successfully than they ever could have done in an age in which we were the victims of nature. I therefore maintain that to-day we know enough about the world in which we live to be capable of doing things that we previously could not do.

Every religion, or practically every religion, through which man has passed in previous years, has been characterized by the fact that men took their inspiration from an external authority and not from their own experience. Man is now capable of being free as he has never been from fears, terrors, superstitions. If that be so, then that school of thought which advocates the use of reason as distinct from the use of violence in order that we may enter the Promised Land, can assume a sense of confidence which was never possible before.

The Teacher and the Politician

Immediately, therefore, you are faced with the importance of education. It is perfectly clear that this change which has taken place in the position of the human mind is only beginning, and that pressure must be brought to bear in order that this tendency may be strengthened and expedited. Herein lies the problem of the future, and it is a very curious thing that just at the moment when this change has taken place, you see a simultaneous change in the attitude of the educationalist to the child.

It is a common experience now for all of us to say that education is concerned not only with giving instruction to the child, but with helping the child to think.

When we are dealing with children, truly believing in the philosophy which I have explained, it is our business to ask those children questions as well as to answer the questions they put to us. If we see a child forming an opinion, even if it be one which we share, it is none the less still our business to question that child as to why and how it has become of that opinion.

I have tried to put it to you that we have now entered an age in which the human mind can be an independent influence exercising power over affairs, and that being so we must now turn to politics. If that is a lesson for the teacher in the way in which he should handle the child in the school, it is equally a lesson for the politician in the way in which he should handle the electors and democracy.

Broadcasting and Politics

From now onwards the politician must be prepared to use politics as a means of education—and not as a means to power—in the contact between himself and democracy. We have got to develop a new political technique between the statesman and the elector. We have got to realize that the way in which to treat democracy in an age in which the human mind can function independently, is quite different from any previous method of contact; and it so happens that just at this moment again a new invention has been placed at our disposal to this end, and that is Broadcasting.

I believe when the history of this age comes to be written, that amongst all the marvellous inventions which science has placed at our disposal, the invention of broadcasting will remain as the most wonderful of all.

Until broadcasting became our possession, the ordinary citizen was dependent very largely upon one source of information—his daily newspaper, or perhaps, an occasional chance encounter with a party politician. His prejudices and his instincts were always worked upon in a water-tight compartment. To-day the world is at our hearthside.

The world is small now. Even on the economic plane, we know that we cannot avoid in our daily life the hopes and anxieties of a narrow world, but now there can come through to us the voices of statesmen from all nations, the opinions of politicians of all parties, and even if it were true that only a comparatively small handful of men and women as yet tune in to listen to that side of our broadcasting programme, none the less it is true that the seal of authority has been placed on the fact that truth is many-sided—something which most people never believed possible even fifty years ago.

Consequently, just when the mind is becoming an independent instrument of influence, so we have a method now of bringing discussion, argument and knowledge from many and various points of view to the hearth of every home in our country. That is a terrific development. The world has become to-day practically a city state.

The Politician and Democracy

With this instrument, with this change in the position of the human mind, the politician must now take democracy into his confidence. He must no longer go to democracy as he has hitherto done, considering it to be a source of personal or party power. He must now go to democracy considering it to be the source of power for achievement. He must therefore alter his style of political propaganda.

Do you realize, as I have realized by personal experience, how, during this critical year of 1932, over and over again statesmen have ended to withhold from democracy statements of policy until some election was finished?

If statesmen continue to say that in a world where people are more potentially intelligent, more willing to listen, and more capable of forming judgments: 'We shall withhold information until elections are complete,' the world will head straight for dictatorships.

You will disillusion the elector as to his power. He will desire efficiency, and he will reject democracy in favour of a dictatorship.

The politician should treat democracy exactly as an up-to-date doctor treats his patient. We have finished with the bedside manner of democracy.

We have also finished, if I may say so, with the doctor's mandate as a technique for dealing with democracy, and we have now come to the era of the doctor's prescription.

By the doctor's prescription I mean this: those of us who are politicians must form our own diagnosis of the sickness of society. We must then say: 'That is the cure which we recommend for the sickness from which society is suffering. We cannot alter that prescription because you do not like it.' It is therefore our business now in a new political world to stand by that remedy whether we are in a minority or whether we are in a majority; and if the people say: 'We want another doctor', let them have another doctor.

There must be some school of political thought which is prepared to stand by the merits of political opinions in season and out of season. It may be that that will for the moment create delay due to surprise, but the delay which will occur before that style of politics leads to success will be infinitely shorter than the delays which will be caused in this critical world by the present treatment of democracy.

May I here say a word to my fellow-progressives? If you are going to treat democracy in this new way, your style of advocacy has to be changed as well. If you are the possessor of an intelligent political proposition, and you are going to submit that to democracy, do be content with the merits of your proposition, and do not close the minds of your audience by arousing the passions of war or hatred. If you believe, for instance, in the national control of banking, explain why and do not attack the wickedness of bankers.

I think perhaps I have said enough to submit to you, even though you may differ from it, my belief that at long, long last in the history of civilization, the mind has become potentially a free agent which can now exercise influence over the affairs of men.

Parents, Teachers and the New Democracy

I have tried to describe to you how I believe that you have a new democracy, a world of political problems which are not in themselves complicated, and that all you require to-day is

an act of courage which will relate a new style of political effort to a set of problems and an intelligent audience. The teacher in school has the younger generation. The politician on the platform has the older generation. The parent in the home has to combine with the teacher and the school to get some kind of continuity of practice between the various parts of a child's life. Well, if it was a fine thing to be a parent or

to be a teacher in the old days, it is surely a marvellous adventure in the present day, because now the chance of success is incomparably more exciting than anything that we have experienced before.

We talk about religion: we talk about adventure. Well, if this is not a religion, I know no other, and if this is not an adventure, I do not know what it is

The Romance of Exploration—A School Project

HAZEL M. BARKER

THE activity, 'The Romance of Exploration', was carried on for the duration of the school year by the fifth and sixth grade gifted group of the Grant School, Pasadena, California. There were twenty-five pupils in the class, and the ages of the children ranged from nine to eleven years, while the intelligence quotients were 125 or above. They came from cultured homes and were, in most cases, associated with the better environments of the community, belonging to musical organizations, churches, Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., Boy and Girl Scouts, etc.

The objects of the unit were to provide an environment in which the children could develop physically, mentally, emotionally, educationally, and socially.

Choosing a Project

The first day of school, a group of happy children flocked into the classroom greeting each other and asking: 'What do you want to have for our activity this year?'

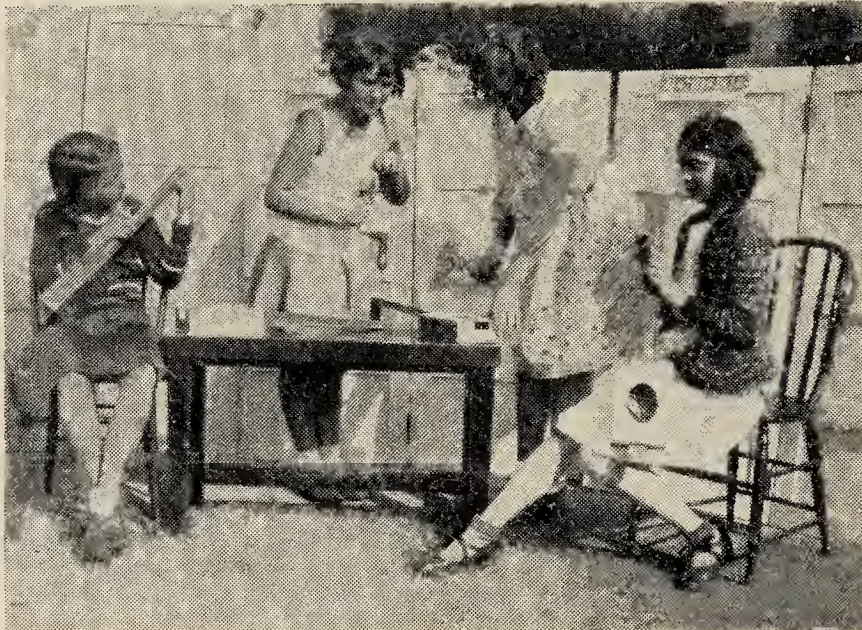
'Let's study ants', said S. 'I have a new book about them that is very interesting.'

'What good would that do us?' asked the class.

This led to criteria for choice of a subject:

1. Subject matter should be interesting for many people.
2. Should take us into a study of different parts of the world.
3. Should help us learn about the past.
4. Should provide abundant material.
5. Should provide many things to do and make.

A general discussion followed, and finally the group chose the subject of Exploration. Because of the publicity given to Admiral Byrd's party in the Antarctic and the search for lost explorers in the Arctic, a study of the exploration of these two regions became the



Making Instruments

starting point of their activity.

The library provided much interesting material, and a trip to a museum to see relics of exploration and exhibits of Eskimo culture gave them a rich background for their study. When Admiral Byrd came to Pasadena with his motion pictures, the class heard him and were most interested in seeing many of the things about which they had been reading.

Verses, songs, stories, and plays were composed and shared with the group. Each child read material of his own selection about the

subject they were studying, and then reported on it to the other members of the group.

Finally, the Vikings, as the pioneer explorers of the Arctic, brought the study of the first quarter of the year to a close and raised the question: Who first explored and why? A discussion followed in which the group planned the balance of their year's work. 'We want to study about the migrations of man and the exploration of the earth from the beginning until now', they decided.

Then began the process of solving the problem: Who were the earliest explorers and how

much of the earth did they discover? Each child studied by himself, making a written record of his research. A discussion period followed in which each one reported to the group what he had learned. Questions were asked and answered and plans for activities were made.

In such a discussion one day in November, a child said: 'Let's

give a pageant to tell the story of exploration'. The suggestion was accepted enthusiastically.

Staging a Pageant

Plans were then made by the group and committees were chosen to write up each scene as planned. Then came the task of making properties, scenery, and costumes. The tree-dwellers lived in a tropical world. Giant ferns, large-leafed plants, palms and bamboo, flowers of every vivid hue—these we must paint for our scene of the tree-dwellers. Wrapping paper, cut into eighteen-foot strips and pasted together to make a piece seven feet high, was prepared and put on a frame which the children made. This was put across one end of the room, and the group planned and sketched in the scene with chalk. When they all knew the plan, they began to paint, using poster or cold water paints. Several could

paint at a time and they took turns so that all had a share.

Then there were the properties to make. A wild animal was made of burlap: pieces of meat were made of red cambric stuffed with excelsior; stone axes and clubs were made for weapons; a step ladder was made to resemble a tree for the tree-dwellers to climb. The costumes were made of burlap or gunny sack covered with fur. An extension cord for red and yellow lights was used to resemble a fire. Through these activities, C.—a boy who had never shown much initiative—learned to be

more independent. Thus personality growth came as a result of responsibility.

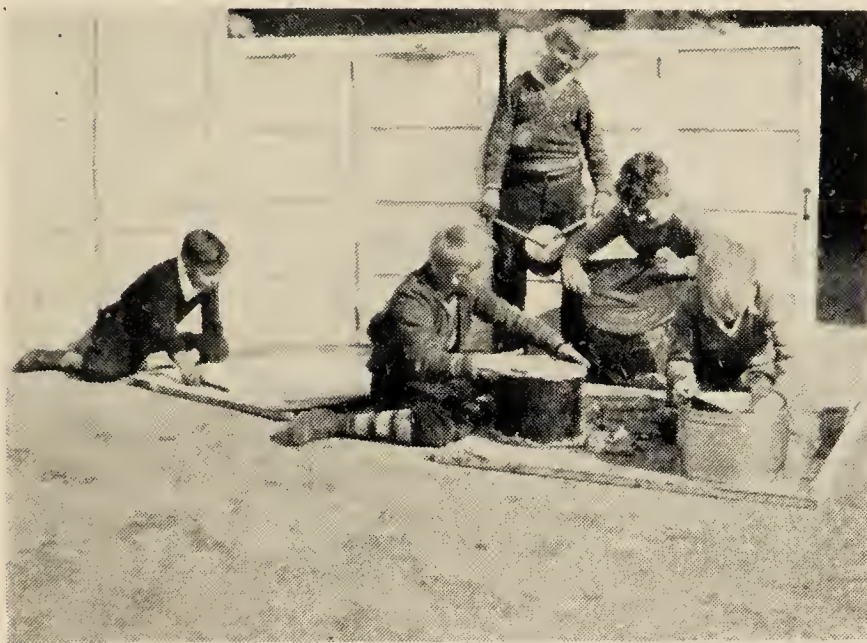
In a similar way, exploration in each period of history was portrayed.

The lights on the stage were not strong enough, so two floodlights and footlights were planned. A committee was elected to investigate the material needed and the

cost. This committee measured the stage and the outlets for wiring and found that they needed fifty feet of wire for the floodlights and thirty feet for the footlights. They needed two 150-Watt lights for the floodlights, two bright pans for reflectors, two sockets and two plugs. For the footlights they needed twelve 40-Watt lights, twelve sockets, tin for a reflector, and one plug. They also needed an extension cord and a small light globe for each wing of the stage, as well as another extension cord with three coloured lights and flickers for the fire, making thirty-five feet of wiring for extension cords.

After the plans were all made and measurements recorded, the committee made a trip to town to obtain the best prices, and gave a detailed report to the class, showing that the total cost would be \$7.43.

After considering the fact that this equipment was to become a permanent addition to



Making Drums

the stage and could be enjoyed by everyone, they voted to pay the bill from the class treasury.

The footlights were inspected by the city schools' electrician and failed to pass, as there were some exposed wires. The school furnished some material necessary to rebuild them, and the boys resolved to consult some authority before they started building next time. This experience made a visit by some members of the class to see the wiring of a house more valuable. D., a boy who had always sought teacher approval instead of that of the group, was one of the committee on lights and because of his efficiency and interest forgot himself and so won the approval of the group, gaining the feeling of fellowship and leadership he desired.

Rehearsal for the pageant resulted in some very definite personality growth. W. entered the Grant School at the beginning of the 6th grade. He had always been a failure, and had hated school. When he first came he asked if he might draw all he wanted to and was assured that he certainly might; so the first week he drew and watched the other children. Then he began to browse through the books on the library shelf. He entered freely into the class discussions, but he did not excel in anything,

and had some social difficulties until the pageant rehearsals began. 'W. is the best actor in the class', gave him his first taste of really contributing something to the group. He liked school for the first time in his life. He did his share in making properties and costumes, and in research he did more than he was required to do.

Making Their Own Music

Creative music was one very important mode of expression employed. The pageant told of a Phœnician ship on a calm sea. Sailors chanted as they rowed to the rhythm of a drum; so the class composed a song for the scene.

The Greek explorers portrayed in the pageant came to the Oracle at Delphi for council concerning a journey, and the priestesses chanted a prayer to Apollo, which the class also wrote.

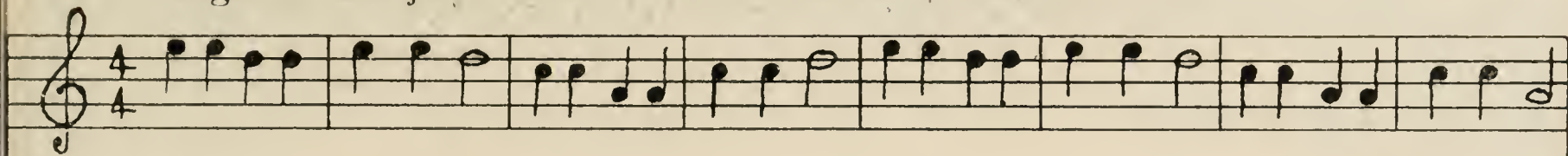
Then the gorgeous court of Kublai Khan, to which the Polos, those famous explorers, came, was entertained by dainty little musicians dressed in Oriental costumes designed, dyed, and made by the musicians themselves. The music they also wrote and played upon instruments most of which they had made.



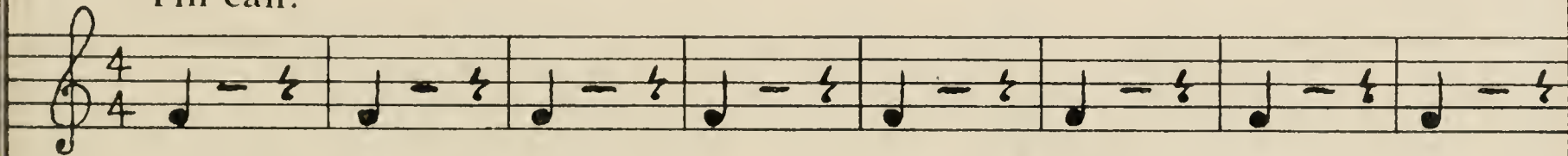
The Pageant

Music for Kublai Khan

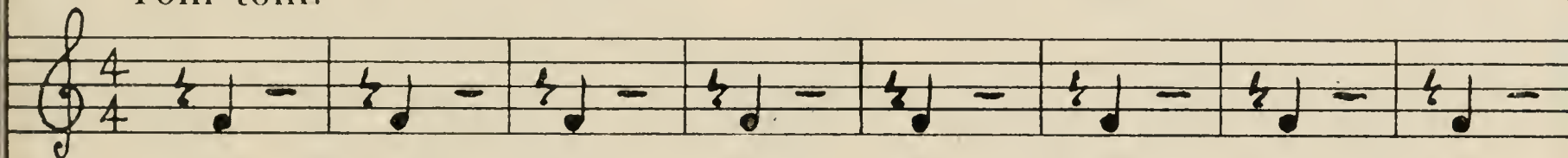
Flageolet-banjo.



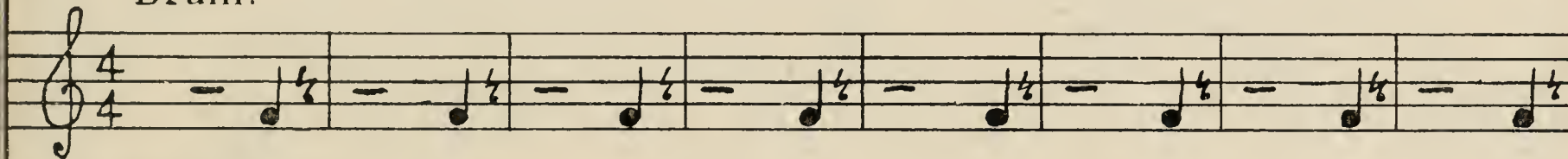
Tin can.



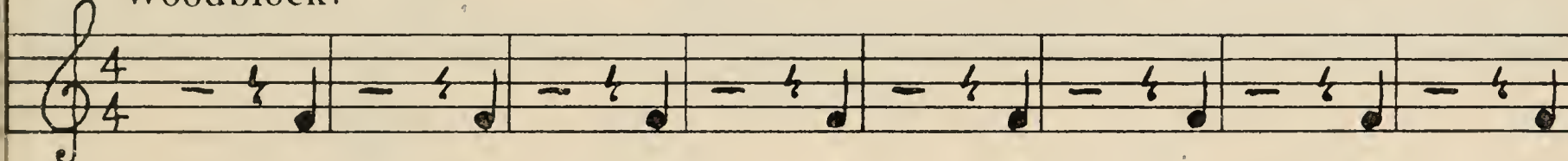
Tom-tom.



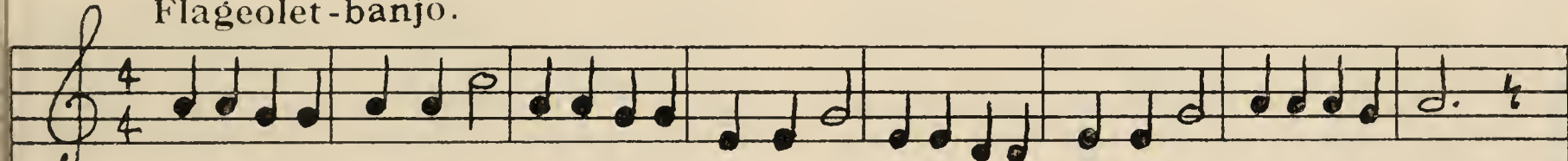
Drum.



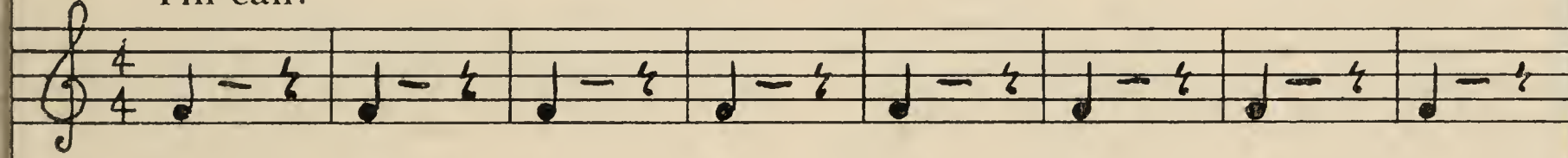
Woodblock.



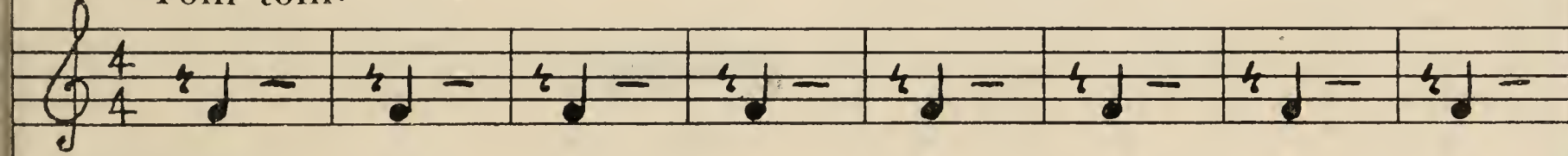
Flageolet-banjo.



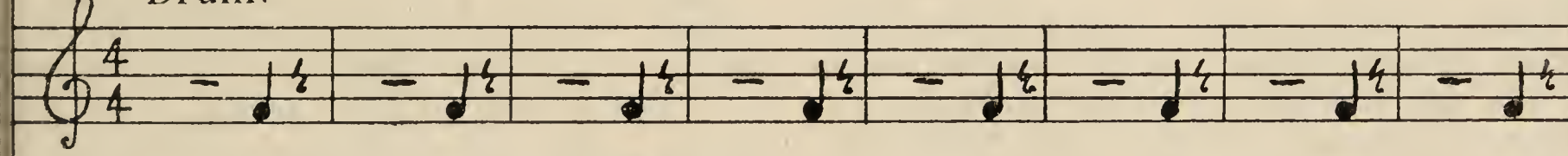
Tin can.



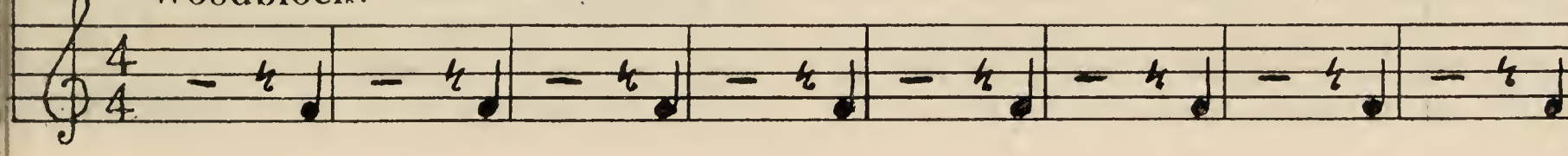
Tom-tom.



Drum.



Woodblock.



*The Pageant*

Effect on Curriculum and Character

Much other valuable curriculum material grew out of the activity. Geography and history were abundant. Language developed, for there were many experiences to be shared through dramatization, reports of research planning, original stories, verses and plays. Written records were made of research and original work: letters were sent for information: the dictionary habit was encouraged, and good spelling was thus promoted. Literature was rich in all the different periods of history explored, and much was shared with the group while some children enjoyed individual reading. Music also was a vital element. In addition to the help given in art by the supervision of that department, some professional contacts were invaluable. A professional scene painter helped the class to paint a scene one Saturday. They brought their lunch and made a picnic of the gathering. They fastened the paper on the back of the garage, and as they worked the artist criticized, suggested, and instructed. These principles of art were applied by the boys and girls to other scenes they painted. They painted eight scenes 18 feet by 7 feet,

and many small pictures adorned the walls of the class room besides. They worked with watercolour, crayola, and poster paints.

Arithmetic grew out of the activity in many ways through reckoning of distances by latitude and longitude, measuring for stage lighting, figuring costs of materials for costumes and properties.

Standardized tests showed that a commendable growth was made during the year in the subjects we have learned to measure, but the richest results came in personality growth.

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Across Europe In Pursuit of Education

DOROTHY BINDER

PART I

THE life of the foreign correspondent of a newspaper is an interesting and exciting one. When he is worn out with covering wars, riots, rebellions, volcanoes and other natural phenomena, he usually retires to some garden spot where he can live cheaply and well, and writes the story of his life. Some-

parts with strange plumbing or none at all, and with alien schools to which their offspring must be adapted with tact and, often long-suffering.

We were basking one summer day in the sunshine of the California coast on one of those infrequent holidays that a newspaper



In the Wake of the Breadwinner

times he dedicates his book to his wife 'without whom this book would have been impossible.' But no one ever wonders much about that wife, and those children, and what they do while their talented and adventurous breadwinner is gallivanting about the earth. Only the wives of other newspaper men can appreciate the difficulties to be encountered in foreign

man's salary permits, waiting to be joined in a few days by the head of the family, when the telegraph boy presented us with a wire from the *paterfamilias* in Chicago. We were to embark for Rome within a month to be gone three years. Please would we come home immediately and get ready.

It had taken four days and three nights to

get to California from Chicago. It took that long to return home. There was the house to let, the furniture to store, clothes to buy, the children's teeth to see to and a million and one details incident to a long absence. In the middle of it all everyone went down with a snivelling attack of influenza.

But though that month is one of the periodic nightmares of a newspaper man's wife, we finally did clamber on to a boat in New York harbour more dead than alive, with the two children aged four and six, greatly stimulated, indeed considerably over-stimulated by the life of travel suddenly thrust upon them.

Rome—Finding a Home

We arrived in Rome one dark October evening. The silver spray of that lovely fountain in the piazza opposite the terminal station, with its noisy little taxis and crowding people, stands out in my memory as our introduction to Rome. Long afterwards Sis confessed to me what her four-year-old expectation had been. 'I thought Italy was going to be a great big garden', she said, 'with Mussolini standing at the gate to let us in.'

The correspondent whom my husband was succeeding had written us one brief letter of advice to America, in which he told us to bring with us an ice pick and all the school books and other equipment the children would need as we would probably have to teach them ourselves. This latter advice seemed a bit superfluous to me for were we not to live in the land of Montessori? However, it proved to be more useful than the ice pick instructions, for no apartment we ever had boasted an ice box.

The first two weeks were spent looking for an apartment. The children didn't like to look at apartments and the black looks of landladies as they energetically tried out the trees in the garden to see if they were climbable finally urged me to the desperate measure of parking them temporarily in a day kindergarten while I continued the search alone. This kindergarten was a part of an English school for Italians considered among the best in Rome. But for children brought up in a liberty-loving atmosphere and bursting with energy it was little short of prison. They were used to building

life-size boats and houses out of large blocks. To have a two-by-four box of tiny Froebel bricks passed out to them with the command to 'build for fifteen minutes' struck them as not only insulting, but silly. They rebelled the first day they came home. 'Anyhow', said Carroll, in his Chicago English, 'the teacher's a dumb-bell. She can't even speak English.'

The apartment was finally acquired, but not having had previous experience in renting houses in foreign lands, we hadn't thought of trying out the plumbing and the stove before signing the lease. Neither worked. Not knowing the language was the worst handicap of all. We suffered impositions, misunderstandings, and all the other things endured by a stranger in a foreign land.

But although those first two months were an agony as far as housekeeping was concerned, they were a great education: we had to learn the language: we had to argue with plumbers and gas men, and with little boys next door who threw stones. Once a maid had been engaged our worries decreased. An Italian servant, if she be a good one, is a marvellous institution. Nobody cheated us or laughed at us behind our backs any more after Papina came. And we found that at last we could turn our attentions seriously to the subject of schools.

We Fail to find a School

Kind friends suggested various institutions. There were, of course, the Rome public schools. But like all free schools the world over, they were crowded to capacity and we were naturally not candidates for the particular brand of politics and religion to which all Italian children were expected to subscribe. There was an 'English School' staffed by Italian nuns, where the children spoke a 'lingo' all their own which was neither Italian, English nor American. They spent a good deal of their time standing in corners and catching infectious diseases. A French government school, which several American and English children attended, seemed a little complicated for our children who were only beginning to navigate in Italian. A small American school was the most progressive in its methods, but it seemed to us ostensibly for children whose whole education was necessarily to be among Europeans. Our

theoretically short stay might better be spent in acquiring a little of the culture of Europe.

I hunted in vain for a Montessori school. None existed, and those that advertised themselves as such in the hopes of attracting foreigners, were not recognized as legitimate offspring by the Maestra herself. This, I might add, was the condition of affairs in the winter of 1927. Since then Montessori has come into her own in Italy. Mussolini, ever alert, learned that the famous educator was honoured everywhere except in her native land, and he himself headed a society which revived interest in Montessori methods and established a beautifully equipped demonstration school in Rome.

We finally gave up tramping the streets in search of the perfect school. Instead we sat on the cold stone seats of the Coliseum pretending that lions were about to rush in and devour us alive, or we basked in the sun in the Forum and tried to picture what little Roman boys and girls of four and six did long ago. On warmish days we took the electric train to Ostia, the ancient Roman seaport, and picnicked on the beach. We learned all sorts of things that those who live in a highly industrialized society never experience. We saw how most Italians, even city residents, still do their laundry in the public fountains or nearby streams. We watched furniture being delivered to customers in pushcarts and milk brought in from the country likewise in a pushcart, with faucet attached. The milkman announced his coming with a taxi horn and the customers would run out with any old wine bottle handy to get their day's supply.

One day a week, the children climbed the narrow dark stone steps in the old Aurelian wall to the little studio of the 'Master of the Wall', one of the most interesting characters in Rome, with his long Vandyke beard and his love for children. The studio was filled with the lovely creations of the Master and his dark-eyed daughter. An artist to the fingertips, he believed that all children could learn to create beautiful things and to prove it, he filled the studio twice a week with Rome's poorest youngsters and gave them free instruction. His theory may be contrary to the progressive idea that children should express whatever is in them whether the result be

beautiful or not; but there was something altogether fascinating about the atmosphere of that studio, where one could walk out of the door on to that ancient wall and see Rome in the brilliant sunshine as generations ago Roman guards marched these same ramparts watching the safety of their city.

Summer in Switzerland

We spent our first summer in Switzerland in the trail of the breadwinner for whom Rome offered no news in the hot weather. The children, who had had very little of the companionship of other children for nearly a year, were installed in the Fellowship School at Gland, where their friends were French, German, Austrian and English. They had discovered by that time that all children were very much alike except for their language. Barefoot the whole time, they learned to swim like fish, and found that fire crackers and bonfires were not confined to Independence Day in America, but that Bastille Day in France crossed the lake, and Republic Day in Switzerland are equally exciting.

Schools—French or German?

When fall came Carroll begged to go to a 'regular school.' By that time he chattered Italian like a Roman and could 'get along' in the French he picked up in Switzerland. Nearest to our house was the French Government lycée. Carroll, with the assurance of ignorance, was certain that he preferred a French school to an Italian one: his Italian acquaintances all threw stones and cried when they got hurt. So we entered him in the 'première classe'. The 'première classe' was composed of children from five to eight. They sat in pairs on hard little benches and shared a desk between them. The teacher was a sharp-faced and harassed mademoiselle whose duty it was to cram information down her pupils' throats in bitter doses. They had to learn reams of moralizing poetry and prose by heart, none of which they ever bothered to understand. Reading lessons consisted of reciting a series of phonetics, words they would never possibly use even in adult conversation. They learned to write in checkered notebooks with sputtering pens and were

punished for inkblots by having their ears pulled. Morning and afternoon they were released for 'break' in a flagged courtyard where there was no supervision and where daily a free-for-all fight took place. I realized that it was perfectly natural for a boy of seven to fight and I knew also that he had to learn to take a few beatings himself with good grace. But it did seem unnecessary to have him come home every day with a bloody nose. So at last I betook myself indignantly to the headmaster. He was all politeness. He called the hatchet-faced teacher to the office and I explained myself.

'Yes, it is that bully', she said. 'He attacks all the little boys. But Madame, your son he got but a nose-bleed. Madame should have seen what that bully did to little Louis.' Little Louis, I remembered, was the underfed, undersized offspring of an ambitious diplomat. 'Why, he hit little Louis so hard in the mouth', continued the teacher, 'that his tooth came' right through his lip.' She giggled. I gasped. Even the headmaster seemed taken aback. Fortunately the lease of our apartment was about to expire and we had to move. It gave us an excellent excuse to withdraw from the school.

Meanwhile, however, Sis was making life miserable with her pleas to go to school too. She didn't like the long mornings without her playmate. So we began the search again. We were looked over appraisingly by nuns at a French girls' school and decided to investigate the next address. We found ourselves on a steep street pulling the doorbell of the 'Deutsche Schule', and were ushered up a winding stairway, down a long corridor, into the Herr Oberlehrer's office. Sis knew no German. Mine was audacious but deficient. The Herr Oberlehrer greeted us kindly, bade

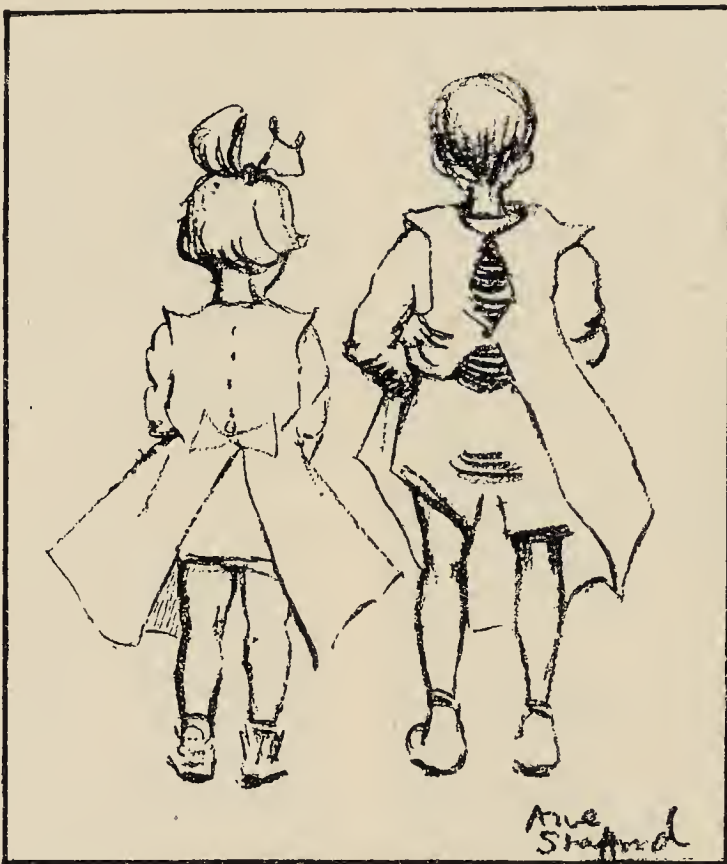
us sit down and then said in English: 'So you are Americans.' And smiling at Sis he added: 'My name's George, what's yours?' Sis brightened. This was a school that was a school. She started in the next day and her tale of the German school doings made our poor French scholar frankly envious. Her school had a Christmas party after the holidays, with a real 'Tannenbaum', with presents and candies and carols, and Carroll decided that after all Germany outshone France when it came to schools and he guessed he would swap.

The linguistic conversion was complete in

almost no time. My two marched into their schoolroom each morning at the early hour of eight, decked out in white pinafores and greeting their teacher with a 'Guten Morgen'. There were eight different nationalities in that class of twenty children, among them Swedes, Norwegians, Danes, Swiss and Austrians. A fascist edict preventing any Italian child from attending a foreign school eliminated the attendance of such children. It was one of the few co-educational private schools in Rome.

The atmosphere of that little German school was

as different as the attitudes of the hatchet-faced French mademoiselle and the German Herr Oberlehrer. The cheerful friendliness was intriguing. True the school was in an old building, the seats were antiquated and the physical equipment meagre. But there was personality, always the first requisite of real teaching. The new German government textbooks were already in use and they are a credit to the reform movement in the German free schools. The children delighted in them and they learned quickly. Although the school hours were exceedingly short they managed to accomplish in six months all the work they had been missing at home.



International Notes

FELLOWSHIP NOTES

Headquarters World Fellow Teas

The speakers at the *Fellowship's* recent teas have been particularly interesting. We had the honour of entertaining some of the members of the Chinese Education Commission which is visiting Europe at the suggestion of the League of Nations, and Mr. P. C. Cheng, the Chairman, was present. Other speakers have been Dr. Kullman, head of the Information Bureau of the League of Nations, Capt. W. O. Field, of the New School, Streatham, and Dr. G. H. Green, who spoke on 'Children and Foreigners'.

Tea is served between 4.30 and 6 every Friday, at 29, Tavistock Square, London, for members and their friends.

A Study Course on the Changing Curriculum

A Director of Education and a Headmaster have been asked by the *New Education Fellowship* to give, under its auspices, two courses that will present to teachers new ways of dealing with the present day curriculum. They have been designed to be of practical help to teachers and will not consist of mere academic discussions.

Course A, on Social Studies, will be given by F. C. Happold, D.S.O., M.A., Headmaster of Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury, and author of '*The Approach to History*', '*The Adventures of Man*', etc. The object of this course is to suggest ways of escape from the present overcrowded curriculum and to show how a combined subject called Social Studies, embracing what we now know as English, History, Geography, Economics and Civics, may be devised. This would not only give a thorough training in expression and reasoning, but would also prepare the boy or girl to tackle intelligently the problems of the modern world. Mr. Happold will give four lectures, dealing with the *Problem of Organization*, *the Problem of Content*, and *the Problem of Method*.

Course B, on Teaching English, will be given by J. Compton, M.A., Director of Education for Barking and Editor of '*The Curtain Rises*', '*Magic Sesame*', '*Beacon Literary Readers*', '*Master Ventures*', '*Scenes from the Savoy Operas*'. He will survey the problems of teaching English to children of over 11 in four lectures: *Taking Stock*, *Teaching Children to Write*, *Teaching Children how to Read*, and *Poetry*.

Both courses are intended equally for teachers in central, secondary or elementary schools, and each lecture will be followed by discussion. The first course will begin on February 16th, and the second on March 23rd. The fees are 6s. for each course (5s. for members of the English Section of the *N.E.F.*) All further particulars can be obtained from the *New Education Fellowship*, 29, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

A new series of monographs has been specially prepared for the *New Education Fellowship*, and the first

of these, *The Task of Education in a World Crisis*, by Dr. J. J. van der Leeuw, has just appeared. Three other pamphlets by Dr. Goodwin Watson, Mr. Salter Davies, and Professor Jean Piaget, are already in preparation. This series of essays is addressed to the English reading public of the world in the hope that it may provide the layman with an insight into the problems and functions of education to-day as seen by leading educators in many different parts of the world. Copies, price 1s. each, may be obtained from the *New Education Fellowship*, 29, Tavistock Square, London.

A new group of the *Fellowship* was formed in December in the Punjab, on the initiative of several members who attended the Nice Conference. The Chairman of the Group is Sir Abdul Qadir, Judge of the High Court, Punjab; Vice-President, Mr. A. C. C. Hervey, Principal, Government College, Ludhiana; Secretaries, Professors B. C. Harrington and Pars Ram of Forman Christian College. A strong Council representing different educational interests has been formed. We welcome this new effort very cordially.

The Commission Secretary, Miss Oppenheim, has just returned from a short tour in Scandinavia, where she made many interesting contacts and did much valuable work. The Field Secretary, Mr. A. J. Lynch, J.P., is visiting Manchester and district at the end of January, and is going on to Dundee, Edinburgh, Dunfermline, Kircaldy and Morayshire in February.

As we go to press, we learn with great regret of the death of Herr Herman Tobler, founder and director of Hof Oberkirch, one of the pioneer progressive schools in Switzerland. The school has suffered a great loss, as indeed has the *New Education Fellowship*.

CONFERENCE OF EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

The twenty-first Annual Conference of *Educational Associations* was held at University College, London, from January 2nd to January 5th.

Mr. H. Ramsbotham, Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education, delivered the opening address. Discussing the general trend of education, he said that he anticipated that education in our secondary schools and universities would tend to become broader and less academic. Dr. J. Scott Lidgett was in the Chair, and Miss W. Mercier and Mr. J. E. Barton also spoke.

In his presidential address to the Conference, given on January 4th, the Earl of Athlone, Chancellor of the University of London, put to educationists the 'rock question.'

'Now that money is so hard to come by, are we getting a full pound's worth of education for every pound we lay out upon it?'

Financial consideration must at present slow up education, but the hold up, if it were used to take stock of the position might prove to be the reverse of evil.

In considering the educational movement, Lord Athlone said that two requirements were paramount: the curriculum even in the most 'practical' or 'commercial' school must be so liberal as to bring the pupil under the influence of the great traditions of European culture, and though the community is entitled to profit by the education of its children, their own individual development is the central purpose of the whole business.

On Tuesday, January 3rd, the *Dalton Association* held a meeting at which Dr. P. B. Ballard presided. A lecture on *Individual Work* was given by Mr. A. Corlett, Headmaster of Greenacre Senior Boys' School, Great Yarmouth.

Mr. Corlett pointed out that the Dalton plan was based primarily on freedom with responsibility and implied, not that the pupil should do anything he liked, but that he should do any subject in his programme whenever he liked and that the exigencies of time-tables should not interfere with the time he wished to spend on that subject. Class lessons were of the conference type, where boys were encouraged to state their difficulties.

The Importance and Place of Religious Education was the subject of a meeting of the *Association of Assistant Mistresses*. Miss G. A. Richards, the Bishop of Croydon, Professor Norman H. Baynes and Archdeacon Storr were the principal speakers.

Speaking on *A Fourth Dimension in Education* at a meeting of the *Parents' National Educational Union*, Mr. P. Hugh B. Lyon said that the only three dimensions concerning education which he knew were length, breadth and depth. He thought that the first, the length of a child's education depended entirely on the child and the education, though everyone was sure that education of some kind should continue at least until the child was fifteen. As for breadth, a child should get as much education as it could assimilate. A child of 8 or 10 had a large appetite for knowledge which must be fed. Concentration on a few subjects without breadth of interest in and out of school in everything that made life larger and more beautiful was a narrowing and starving process. He thought, however, that they must never be content to work in two dimensions only, and he knew of no other thing which could give depth to an education other than devotion to things of the spirit.

At a meeting of the *Independent Schools Association*, Mr. S. Maxwell, Headmaster of Manor House School,

Clapham Common, deplored the 'Matric' fetish, and said that in his opinion most business men who demanded it did not know what the term implied. Mr. A. P. Anderson agreed that there was almost a worship of the word 'Matric' and that it had led to a kind of unfair exploitation.

On January 5th Lord Eustace Percy addressed the *Modern Languages Association*. He suggested that the first aim of secondary education in languages should be to impart both the ability to read a language and a taste for its literature. He also said that experience showed that the Englishman was an exceptionally good linguist once his sense of utility was aroused and an exceptionally bad one until that sense was aroused.

Sir Walford Davies spoke to the Conference on *Music and Human Nature*. He urged that they should break down any idea that music was specialized and set up in its place the commonplace idea that it was a purely common product.

The question of the *Modern Boy* was discussed at a meeting of the *Society for Experiment and Research in Education*. Mr. J. Howard Whitehouse of Bembridge School and Dr. W. W. Vaughan were the principal speakers.

On Friday, January 6th, a discussion arranged by the *Medical Officers of Schools Association* took place on the risks of competitive games and sports for adolescents of school age.

Mr. Cove-Smith emphasized the value of games from the physical, mental and moral point of view, but he considered that the competitive nature of games too often tended to detract from it. Dr. J. Lambert defended the team spirit of competition and Dr. Friend, who presided, associated himself with this view.

Lord Allen's address to the *New Education Fellowship* given on January 5th, is reported in full on page 7.

OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

We learn from the *News and Notes* of the *International Federation of Home and School* that a new member, the *National Council of Parent Education*, has recently joined the *Federation*. Dr. Edna Noble White, Director of the Merrill-Palmer Nursery School, Detroit, Michigan, and Director for the United States in the *International Federation of Home and School*, is Chairman of the Governing Board. The membership is organizational and institutional and includes sixty national and local adult educational and welfare organizations, training schools, universities, research stations, state and federal government bureaux and departments working in the field of child study and parent education.

The *Home and School Council of Great Britain* has arranged a very comprehensive programme of lectures and discussions to be held in London from February to June, 1933. These include a special course for parents, conducted by Dr. Elizabeth Sloan Chesser, and another for children's nurses, conducted by Dr. Grace Calver. Dr. Ian Suttie and Dr. Graham Howe are also lecturing, while special study group week-ends have been arranged. Another course of twelve lectures on *Advances in Understanding the Child* will also be given in Bristol, beginning on February 1st. Further information as to times, dates and fees may be obtained from the Organizing Secretary, *Home and School Council*, 29 Tavistock Square, to whom all inquiries should be addressed.



Mental Health Courses for Social Workers

We are glad to draw our readers' attention to the six scholarships offered by the London School of Economics for this course. Further particulars will be found on page 26. It is interesting to note that this training has ceased to be the monopoly of those definitely intending to take up work in clinics and is welcomed by many who are concerned in a less specialized way with personal and social well being.



Cecil Reddie Memorial Fund

It is proposed to raise funds for a memorial to the late Dr. Cecil Reddie, of Abbottsholme School, to be placed in the school chapel. Subscriptions should be sent as soon as possible to the Hon. Treasurer, Mr. G. S. Rawson, 5 Phillimore Terrace, Allen Street, London, W.8.



Four talks on *Sex Education and the Child* have been arranged for those in charge of young people by the British Social Hygiene Council. They begin on 21st February, and full particulars can be obtained from Carteret House, Westminster, London.



THE HEATH NURSERY SCHOOL CASE

As we go to Press we learn that an injunction has been granted against the defendant in the Heath Nursery School case. The nature of the judgment makes one ask what provision modern society is making for its children of kindergarten age. There are many districts in London, where, owing to property restriction, no properly equipped nursery school with garden can be opened. This case shows that even where no such restrictions exist, a school which is strongly approved by the children's parents may legally be held to constitute a nuisance to its neighbours. Is the precedent created by this case to be allowed to endanger the extension of our school system to include children of kindergarten age for whom such education in the open air is so essential?

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NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF GREAT BRITAIN

The Annual Meeting of the Nursery School Association of Great Britain was held at University College, London, on Friday, 6th January, 1933, and was well attended.

There were morning and afternoon sessions. At the former Professor Emile Marcault delivered a lecture on 'The Whole Child'. In the regrettable absence through illness of the Chairman, Miss Lillian de Lissa, Miss Margaret Drummond, M.A., kindly presided and was supported by the President, Mrs. H. J. Eveleigh, and Miss Grace Owen, O.B.E.

Professor Marcault, who said he was always highly honoured when asked to speak about, or for, very young children, remarked that the times had gone when a very young child was considered as an incomplete being or as something not yet fulfilled. 'The child is father to the man' has for a long time been the formula; but to-day that is being superseded. The child is not the father to the man, the child *is* the man—the whole man—not yet perhaps fully conscious of all his faculties, but already in possession of all the power that he will ever have.

With this introduction, Professor Marcault went on to develop his theme in such a way as to show the necessity for care and training of children from the earliest stages.

On the motion of Mrs. Eveleigh, seconded by Miss Belle Rennie, Professor Marcault was heartily thanked for his lecture.

The afternoon session was presided over by Miss

Margaret Drummond, M.A., in the regrettable absence of Miss de Lissa. This meeting was devoted to formal business. Priority was given to acknowledging the great services to the Association given by Miss Grace Owen by electing her as Honorary Adviser. Miss Owen thanked the Association, and at once proceeded to read the report of the Association's work during 1932. This report will be circulated to members in due course. It is sufficient to say here that it described a year of unusual activity.

The General Secretary, in the absence through illness of the Treasurer, Mrs. K. Polson, presented the audited accounts. In spite of the national depression, the membership had increased by more than fifty, and the balance in hand was a little over £80. Though it was felt that the position was satisfactory at the moment, the Association appeals for wider support in order to prevent any curtailment of its work in the

future. The President, Mrs. H. J. Eveleigh, the Vice-President, the Chairman, Miss Lillian de Lissa, the Vice-Chairman, Miss Margaret Drummond, the Treasurer, Mrs. Kathleen Polson, and the General Secretary, Mr. A. J. Lynch, J.P., were unanimously re-elected.

The retiring members of the General Committee, with the exception of Miss Crosland, who was unable to continue her work on the Committee, were re-elected. Mrs. Palmer took Miss Crosland's place.

An alteration of considerable importance was made in the constitution of the Association by the setting up of a small executive committee which will meet at regular intervals throughout the year.

The Association sent its greetings to Miss Winifred Mercier, M.A., on the bestowal of the O.B.E., and a message of sympathetic goodwill to Miss de Lissa and Mrs. Polson.



Education Through Recreation. L. P. Jacks.
(University of London Press. 148 pp. 3s. 6d.)

Dr. Jacks' book will be welcomed not only by all pioneers of a better education but by all those who have grasped the necessity of a social reconstruction if progress is to be maintained. Its criticism of our existing conception of education, as well as of our educational practice, is thorough-going and outspoken. 'Our methods of education,' he says, 'are largely responsible for the dearth of creative thinkers in the modern world. Our schools and colleges are doing more to suppress creativeness than to awaken it.' Such a criticism goes deeper than one might at first suppose when we remember that the task now facing our civilization is admittedly one which calls for creative thought and creative action on a new and gigantic scale. It implies that the kind of education which we provide is radically unfitted to the conditions under which we live and indeed that it unfits us for the work that lies ahead.

This radical criticism is by no means negative. It springs from a positive vision of the kind of education which is needed. It lays bare the roots of failure. We have put asunder what nature has joined; we have divorced theory from practice; we have divided the mind from its body. The result is that we try to train mind and body separately and succeed merely in creating and perpetuating an unnatural divorce

between thought and action which prevents the achievement of unity in the individual, and between individuals in society. Such a divorce drives joy out of life, because it frustrates that craving for the expression of thought in action which is the motive force of creativeness, in life as in art.

The book, however, is not merely critical. Indeed the criticism is expressed only in the course of a plea for a new form of education which should be based upon the fusion of the elements in personality which we have sought to keep apart. The heart of Dr. Jacks' contention, it seems to me, is that all true education is an education in skill. 'Until knowledge is transformed into experience,' he writes, 'it has no vital connexion with the personality of the knower; it is superficial, precarious, unfixed, unassimilated, so that most of it is destined to be lost sight of, neglected, misapplied, forgotten, or even despised in the stages of life which follow the stage known as education.' On this principle he would have us build a form of education through recreation in which the training of the mind in knowledge and the training of the body in health are not two separate branches, but merely two inseparable aspects of every educational activity. On the methods by which such an education can be achieved, as well as on the social results which might be expected to flow from its achievement, he has much to say that deserves the

consideration of all teachers. The main practical step for which he pleads is the foundation in every civilized country of a National College of Recreational Culture which should make a beginning in the development of the technique and methods of an education based upon this conception. It is a modest demand in view of the urgency of the need and we must hope that it will succeed.

There can be no doubt that both on the critical and the constructive side Dr. Jacks has put his finger upon the weak spot in our educational theory and practice. If there is any criticism to be offered it is one of which the author himself is well aware. He is offering a vision, an ideal and a theory, and the theory is that theory is valueless until it has become a skill in practice. The fatal defect of idealism is precisely that it formulates theory in advance of practice, and so inevitably fails to realize the network of real facts within which its ideals must be realized and which only too often makes them unrealizable. It is easy to convince oneself that if only we could heal the division between theory and practice through a better form of education, the divisions and distractions in our social and economic life would yield to the creative energy of the new men and women our schools and colleges would produce. Unfortunately, we forget that our educational system is itself part of the social and economic structure which we wish to change. If it is true that we need new men and women to create the new society, it is equally true that we need new social and economic conditions to create the new men and women. The only way out of this vicious circle would seem to be to do both things together and concurrently. The effort to provide the education which will fuse theory and practice can only be part of the wider effort to fuse theory and practice over the whole field of social and economic life. It is curious to notice how close in many ways Dr. Jacks comes to the educational theory of Soviet Russia. But there the educational theory is merely the reflection in a particular field of the demand for uniting theory and practice throughout the whole structure of society by developing the skill which fulfils the democratic ideals of liberty and equality with the economic practice through which alone they can be realized. 'The Story of the Great Plan', a Russian Primer produced for use in schools in the Soviet Union, contains a paragraph which seems to me to sum up, from one point of view, the essence of Education through Recreation'.

'Millions of workers are striving to fulfil the five-year plan successfully; everyone hopes that life will be better afterwards.

'Yes, life will be better afterwards *if we will it*.

'A great plan men have conceived, a great task they have set themselves. To change nature and to change themselves. Are we, such as we are, fit for the new way of life? . . .

'We must root out uncouthness and ignorance, we must become worthy of a better life. And this better life will not come as a miracle; *we ourselves must create it*.'

The italics are mine.

John Macmurray

Leisure in the Modern World. C. Delisle Burns.
(Allen & Unwin. 8s. 6d.)

The world to-day is in the process of creating an entirely new kind of civilization founded upon the democratic principle of leisure for all. Many people welcome this new culture simply because it is in reaction against the old. Others, who refer to themselves regretfully as 'old-fashioned' people, look on at the emergence of this new world with misgiving and anxiety. This book, based on a series of Radio talks in 1932, while remaining fair to both sides, is an impassioned plea for the new way of life and the new scale of values which are fast superseding our traditional culture. Public policy, its author declares, should involve (1) a decrease in the time and energy spent upon production in all countries; (2) an increase in the public provision for education and for the use of leisure, including what are often called luxuries; (3) an acceptance, which in practice would be revolutionary, of the principle that the 'good life' is for each and for all members of all communities. As regards education, he believes that the methods used for the education of the leisured class in the old society cannot usefully be applied in the new. Education for leisure, for instance, should not be so much concerned with games as with the creative arts. But the most important change he desires is that through education during adolescence a generation of men and women should be formed to think and act for themselves. This can only be done if they are prepared to *change* what they have inherited, having been rendered critical of what was thought and done in the past.

The book is in many ways a model for sociologists. Its author distinguishes carefully between facts and the opinions based upon them, and reproduces without bias the views of those with whom he disagrees. He realizes that truth is many-sided, and prints in an appendix selections from letters he has received from listeners-in for and against his thesis. Finally, he does not shirk the issue, but states it baldly with all the vividness and vitality which make him one of the most sought-after lecturers in England to-day.

W. T. R. Rawson

The Dynamics of Education. Hilda Taba.
(Kegan Paul. 10s. 6d.)

This work is psychological, but still more essentially philosophical. It is a discussion of the general characteristics which should be true of our educational methods and which are expressed in the description of mental development as a process of *becoming*.

A large portion of the book is, indeed, devoted to an elaboration of the concept represented by this word. The writer holds that psychology has devoted itself too much to an atomistic analysis of behaviour. The study of stimuli and reactions cannot explain the major problems of conduct, which are those of relationships, intelligence, consciousness and meaning.

All facts are relative to other facts, and laws are themselves 'working tools, the product of human

construction'. Great emphasis is however laid on the purposiveness of behaviour, considered, not in terms of some intellectually imposed goal, but as the outcome of activity itself.

Such observations occupy the first half of the book. The second is devoted to their applications. It is first observed that in all learning flexibility must be respected (as opposed to the Herbartian stress on development of ideas through assimilation of information). Even in progressive schools 'the materials of instruction play a far greater rôle than desirable. The learner is left out of the process of learning, and the unique results which the process may produce in his individual case are insufficiently emphasized'.

Naturally, mental tests are looked on by this writer as 'atomistic and mechanistic'. It is not considered so valuable for a learner to know his achievements or shortcomings at any given moment, as that he should 'gain an insight into the methods of work' and 'the factors and conditions governing his success and failures'.

As by Dewey, great stress is laid on an *aim* being present in education. But it must be remembered 'that whatever values there are in dynamic education are process values and not static end-results, and that the aims must be developed from within this process'.

As to the curriculum, it should be chosen with a greater eye to what is most fertile in self-directed rich experience, and not with a view either to the preservation of accepted institutions or the 'transmission of the ideology of the research specialists'.

The book is one which reflects great thoughtfulness and presents a very much needed point of view. For many readers, however, it will seem rather too abstract, and the average teacher would have found it more helpful if its arguments could have been punctuated with case-material showing their effective application.

Pryns Hopkins

God's Candlelights. *Mabel Shaw.* (Edinburgh House Press. London.)

This book, compiled from letters extending over a period of 17 years, gives an intimate account of a venture in Education carried out in a Christian boarding school for girls in Northern Rhodesia. With deep understanding and patience, Miss Shaw has persistently presented Christianity to the minds of her pupils as a gradual expansion of their own beliefs instead of as a cataclysmic change which might lead to confusion in the minds of those it is designed to benefit.

The book has the charm of making its reader feel that he is sharing in the experiences so graphically described by Miss Shaw and that he is in personal contact with the many characters who wander in and out of its pages so naturally and charmingly. Besides being delightful reading, it describes a most valuable experiment from both the educational and the social point of view.

C. A. Raab

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Further particulars may be obtained from the Secretary of the School, Houghton Street, Aldwych, London, W.C.2.

PARENTS AND CHILDREN

SUPPLEMENT TO "THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL"

PRICE 3d.

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SEX INSTRUCTION FOR CHILDREN

W. T. B. MITCHELL

WE must all accept the fact that the sex instinct, with its attendant interests, is an inevitable part of every living being from birth throughout life. Through wise educational guidance we may direct the child's sex interest so that it becomes a source of rich personal satisfaction and a factor in happy and successful living. Through misguided educational effort based on prejudice, fear and misunderstanding, we may create situations which make it impossible for the child to live and work successfully.

Sex and Mental Health

Mental health means the ability to accept all the urges, interests, assets and limitations which go to make up our individual selves. If there is some part of ourselves which we cannot face without feelings of guilt and self-depreciation, these feelings are going to make us attempt to push out of our lives and minds that part of ourselves which we find unacceptable. There are perhaps no interests so surrounded by guilt feelings as our sex interests. We grow up in atmospheres where this question of sex is surrounded by taboos, fears, prejudices, mistaken ideas, so that we cannot easily and comfortably accept our sex feelings. Such vital feelings cannot healthily be denied or repressed. Careful studies of the behaviour and attitudes of children growing up under the influence of parents who are prejudiced and intolerant, and themselves poorly adjusted to their own sex interests, have given us convincing evidence of the harm which may be done.

The child's attitude to sex, established in the most receptive period of his life, from birth to five years, influences profoundly his ability to meet life's tests. The most important single factor in the child's sex education is the parents' attitude to it. Parents cannot conceal their feelings from the child: inflections and

tones of voice, or facial expressions, reveal these underlying mental attitudes, and the child readily adopts them. All the daily incidents in family life provide opportunities for forming healthy, desirable attitudes or the reverse. In order that early sex education may be 'right', we must in some fashion help adults to acquire tolerant and healthy attitudes to this dynamic factor in living.

Stages in the Child's Development

Parents must not only be able to accept sex feelings and sex manifestations as a normal, grateful part of themselves—they must also have information which will help them to understand what is to be expected from the child at different periods of his development. In the early months of his life, the child's attention is very completely centred on himself, on his own feelings and sensations; and he is dependent on these self-feelings for his satisfaction. At this stage, before his interest is much attracted to outside things, we normally see such manifestations of self-interest as thumb-sucking, thigh-rubbing and infantile masturbation. These interests are usually short lived. They represent the child's easy, natural way of getting satisfaction. Gradually and naturally they are replaced by outside play and other interests. As parents, we should not interfere directly with these natural normal self-interests, *but instead, we should give the child every opportunity to find satisfying interests outside himself.* Direct interference with thumb-sucking or masturbation only prevents the child's establishing his independence or freedom from these activities. *Thumb-sucking, thigh-rubbing, infantile masturbation are not habits until we make them such through attitudes expressing disapproval, through the use of physical restraints, such as mittens or cuffs, through scolding or punishment.* We must also remember that



in the pre-school period, and even at the beginning of the school period, there is a normal tendency for the child to fall back naturally on these easier, infantile ways of getting self-satisfaction. This frequently happens in the face of fatigue, failure, or disappointment. Consequently, we should plan our *régime* and the child's routine to avoid unnecessary difficulties.

Children's Questions

Later, as the child recognizes himself more completely as a person and begins to make comparisons between himself and other people, he is going to ask questions regarding sex differences. Every normally endowed child at some time between the ages of three and five is going to attempt to satisfy this curiosity. He will want to know the names of various parts of his body, what they are for, and why they are different from those of the opposite sex. We should answer his questions as completely as possible, for we have no reason to be restrained or embarrassed by his interest.

Another point on which children will inevitably seek information is 'where babies come from', and all that it implies. Where children do not ask their parents such questions, they must have sensed an attitude to sex and reproduction which makes them realize that their inquiries will not be well received. Such children will seek the information elsewhere or, if the feeling which has been built up in themselves to this interest is too unpleasant, they may deliberately attempt to shut out or repress any knowledge or interest connected with such questions.

Parents' Answers

The child's natural curiosity about his own body and those of his parents and brothers and sisters—curiosity about the names of the parts, their functions and sex differences—should be satisfied in a casual, truthful way, just as one answers the child's other questions. It is very desirable to use the correct terms for all parts of the body, including the genital organs, and to avoid the practice of using substitute terms which must be discarded later. Such familiarity with correct names of the parts makes it quite a simple matter to answer a little child's questions about where babies come from. Most children ask these questions some time during the pre-school period. With the pre-school child one's instruction should be a simple direct, unemotional answer of the question asked. Often the answer that the baby grows inside the mother satisfies the child. If further questions follow, they should be answered in the same *simple, truthful* fashion. It is well for every parent of a young child to *anticipate* these inevitable questions, and to *decide beforehand* just how to answer the questions when they arise. If, as sometimes happens, the child is ready for school, and has not already asked for information about sex, one is safe in assuming that he has had some experience that has made him feel that these are subjects that cannot be freely discussed with parents. Such an attitude is frequently due to experiences over which the parent has no control—talk of nursemaids or contacts with other children. In any event, it is desirable to correct any possible misconception that the child may have, and to forestall any wrong information that may be given him in the

broader school contact, by indirectly stimulating his questions or by casual remarks. This will lead to a simple discussion of sex differences and reproduction. Much valuable instruction can be given the child through study of plant and animal life, but most young children are primarily interested in 'where *baby sister* came from', and logically one should begin with the child's point of personal interest, instead of by answering his questions by analogies with plants and animals.

Provided the attitudes established in the first six years have been frank and healthy ones, the period from six to twelve years represents a time in which the child is so taken up with all sorts of healthy outside interests—playmates, sports, school activities—that there is very little manifest curiosity or interest in sex. Where an unusual curiosity does persist in these years it is probably due to unsatisfied, suppressed interests in the earlier period and is evidence of unfortunate education in the pre-school years. These early school years may well be used in increasing the child's information regarding the biological process of reproduction as he sees it about him in the plant and animal kingdom, in answering his questions, and in helping him, through the healthy attitudes of parents and teachers, to build his own healthy attitudes to sex questions and problems.

Adolescence

Puberty is the term used in connection with the early years of adolescence—it marks the bridge between childhood and adulthood. It is accompanied by the beginning of physical changes which distinguish the adult from the child. At this time the boy and girl become acutely conscious of themselves, and the early years of adolescence are marked by awkwardness, shyness, self-consciousness, a desire to be by oneself and away from the group, or possibly by a set-back in school work. The emotions appear to be on a 'hair-trigger'—the boy and girl are frequently upset by trifling disagreements and incidents in their family and social relationships.

The new element which directs the individual's attention to himself is the complete self-consciousness produced by the physical changes in the reproductive organs, in prepara-

tion for their adult functions. This is the time when many well-meaning, but misguided, individuals are apt to give wrong information and issue warnings to the adolescent boy and girl. Frequently, with characteristic lack of understanding of what is normal and what is to be expected, they make him feel more isolated by expressions of disappointment at his lack of sociability, or by criticism of his school performance. Worst of all, they warn him of the evils, physical, mental and moral, of allowing himself to take any interest in the most dominating thing of the moment—his sex feelings.

It is necessary to give information covering the simple facts of the physiology and hygiene of sex and reproduction when we see that the individual child is on the threshold of puberty. We should also give the child some explanation of his feelings—to help him to realize that although he is not so much interested for the time in outside things, such as school and games, this temporary withdrawal, accompanied by



shyness and self-consciousness, is in some degree the experience of everyone.

As he develops towards maturity, the child seems to go through certain stages. At some points his interests and affections are chiefly centred on individuals of the same sex (homosexuality) and at others on individuals of the opposite sex (heterosexuality). For instance, it is normal at first, that the individual's love and interest should be centred on himself. This is called the narcissistic or self-loving phase.

Later, the young child's interest and affection are normally centred around the comfort-giver—the mother. For girl children, this is a homosexual phase, for boy children, a heterosexual one. The progress is rather different for the two sexes, but, at maturity, the interests and affections of both are centred in individuals of the opposite sex. The reasons are obvious.

Dangers of Emotionalism

Too great an emotional attachment at any one stage may cause an arrestment of development, a so-called 'fixation.' This means that the individual does not progress in his emotional life in the normal way, but his development stops at some stage below maturity. Such an



February 1933

individual may never be able to attain a normal heterosexual adult life.

Parents who are not well adjusted themselves, who are unhappy and unsatisfied in their emotional lives, are apt to attempt to get their satisfaction through very intense emotional concentration on their children. Developing individuals also need the affection and security provided by devoted parents. But as parents we must be grown up enough ourselves to be able to provide for our children the reassurance of loyal and sup-

porting affection, and we must also be willing to work towards their emancipation.

A frequent problem during adolescence with its new and troubling sensations, is an insistent urge to self-stimulation. It is now generally agreed by physicians and physiologists that this self-stimulation or masturbation unless carried to excess, does not cause any physical ill effects, nor is it ever a direct cause of mental disorder. But the emotional conflict arising in the adolescent who masturbates, feeling that it is very wrong and degrading and fearing that it will cause physical and mental disorders may have serious effects. He is apt to shut himself away from normal social contacts, to think that others suspect him of wrong-doing, to



feel inferior and to build up compensatory ideals of purity and sexlessness that will later cause great difficulty in normal sex adjustment.

Consequently, it should be possible for every adolescent to have someone in whom he may confide without reserve, and who will give him sympathetic understanding and constructive help without increasing his fear of his problem. General hygienic care should be stressed, practical measures for ensuring a variety of normally pleasurable contacts with other young people should be made, reassurances—but not

warnings—given. Such measures, along with the general ventilation of a frank talk, frequently mark the decisive point between healthy or unhealthy adjustment for the young man or woman.

There is no doubt that the most helpful and the most fundamental sex education must be carried on individually in the home by the parents, by way of building up healthy attitudes to sex feelings and interests, and also by giving to children correctly and in an unrestrained, unembarrassed manner the information for which they ask.

The illustrations for this article are photographs of children at the Decroly School, Brussels, where they keep and look after their own pets.

HELPFUL BOOKS

FOR PARENTS AND TEACHERS

THE SEX EDUCATION OF CHILDREN. *Mary Ware Sennett.* (Routledge. 3s. 6d.)

THE HUMAN BODY. *Marie Stopes.* (Putnam. 3s. 6d.)

SEX AND THE YOUNG. *Marie Stopes.* (Putnam. 3s. 6d.)

TOWARDS RACIAL HEALTH. *Norah H. March, B.Sc.* (Routledge. 5s.)



WHAT IS SEX? *Helena Wright.* (Noel Douglas. 5s.)

FOR YOUNG CHILDREN

HOW A BABY IS BORN. *K. de Schweinitz.* (Routledge. 2s. 6d.)

HOW YOU BEGAN. *A. Williams-Ellis.* (Gerald Howe. 2s. 6d.)

FOR ADOLESCENTS

POINTS FOR PARENTS TO REMEMBER

Teaching Sex

1. DO YOU REALIZE that it is usual and healthy for an intelligent child to be curious about sex? If he does not ask *you* questions, he will probably get his information elsewhere.



2. DO YOU REALIZE that if you are embarrassed when children ask you questions about sex, they will feel it at once and will think that there is something mysterious and even wrong about the subject?



3. DO NOT LET your children grow up with any false shame about any part of their bodies.



4. A YOUNG CHILD asks exactly what it wants and needs to know at the time. Each question should be answered simply and frankly. But in the case of a child under 11, do not make your answer a starting point for an explanation of matters which have not so far puzzled him.



5. THE BIRTH of another child is obviously an excellent opportunity for teaching the older children about sex.



6. WHERE POSSIBLE, all children should be allowed to keep and look after animals. This is an important part of sex education, particularly in the case of an only child.



7. IT IS MOST IMPORTANT that an only child should have many natural opportunities of observing the differences between himself and people of the opposite sex at a very early age. This will prevent unnatural curiosity later on.



8. IF YOUR CHILD is over 11, and has not asked questions such as: 'Where do babies come from?' you should stimulate his interest in such subjects and answer his questions frankly.

9. ADOLESCENCE is the time when the sex glands begin their work and affect the child's life. He is then neither child nor adult and will probably find life difficult. Shyness and self-consciousness are natural at this age, and you should not expect too much from him at home or let yourself be disappointed if he does not do so well at school.



10. IN VERY YOUNG CHILDREN masturbation (or self-stimulation) is quite common and you should not be alarmed at this habit. If it is not made to seem important by your anxiety, it will probably disappear. Older children will get over it equally easily if you help them by showing them that you understand their difficulties, and by giving them as many outside interests as possible. Remember that masturbation should never be punished.



11. DO YOU REALIZE that however useful talks from teachers or books written by experts may be, your child's attitude to sex will be based on your own? If your own attitude is good, you are the best teacher he can have. If you find it difficult to teach him, there are lectures and books which will help you and we shall be pleased to advise you as to both if you will write to the Editor, enclosing a stamped and addressed envelope.

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ON BRINGING UP CHILDREN

An

MISS

Interview

HELEN

with

SIMPSON



Photograph by Pearl Freeman

MISS HELEN SIMPSON is known to her large public not only as an author who is a 'best-seller' but also as an expert on cookery and kindred domestic matters. In private life she is Mrs. Denis Towne and her views on the upbringing of children are refreshing and unconventional, for she is bound by no one theory and owns that in her own nursery she lays down few hard and fast rules for the education of her small daughter, Clemence, who is just four.

'I have no rules, but I do have just a few principles', said Miss Simpson, and explained that in her opinion, the first thing a parent should realize was the importance of seeing that no emotional pressure is put on the child. Appeals to the child's feelings are never wise and very rarely successful.

Rewards and Punishments

'It is far better', declared Miss Simpson, 'to treat a small child as you would a very nice animal you were training, and with the same sort of firmness.' From which it will be seen that she believes in rewards and punish-

ments. They have their place in nursery life, she thinks. Treats after good behaviour, punishments after bad, have a definite value and are less strain on the child than a discussion of rights and wrongs. Some kind of discipline has to be maintained—if only for the sake of the rest of the household, on whose right to a reasonable existence Miss Simpson was emphatic—and if punishments are avoided, indiscriminate emotional appeals too often take their place.

Courtesy from Grown-Ups

On the other hand, Miss Simpson holds that though you should treat a child as simply and directly as you can in many ways, yet in others you should treat it as you would a grown-up.

'Children', she said, 'are entitled to good manners from their elders, and to reasonable conversation too. Talking down to them, whether it takes the form of baby language or a more obvious snubbing, is both impolite and unnecessary. They have a right to an explanation of the things that puzzle them, whether they are inquiring about sex, or the

beginning and end of the world or merely about the vagaries of adult temper.'

As to games and books, Miss Simpson feels that every child should have as full an imaginative life as it needs.

'Fairy tales, yes', she said, 'why not? Why should you cut children off from the country of the imagination?'

Imagination and its Uses

In her dealings with Clemence she has found that for every bogey in the form of dragons and giants and goblins that she has barred from the nursery, Clemence has invented others of her own, endowing the most innocent objects and animals with unholy powers. These invented demons are difficult to scare away, since no rational explanation drives them out, but Miss Simpson finds that children tend to develop their own imaginary protections from these imaginary assailants; that is why she never discourages her own child's inventions. Clemence's imaginary companions are never mocked, for Miss Simpson believes that young children really need the companions they invent.

But to balance such excursions into the world of imagination, many and varied contacts with other children are necessary, and in addition, Miss Simpson fosters Clemence's interests in all sorts of practical pursuits. At four, she shares her mother's interest in cookery: she takes it very seriously and is perfectly happy in the kitchen where she learns to make all kinds of dishes.

When Clemence Cooks

When batter is needed for the pudding, Clemence knows exactly how much milk is

required—it has to reach a certain mark on the measure. Then she helps to weigh the flour and marks the place to which the pointer on the scales must swing. She knows how many eggs are wanted, and when all the ingredients are ready, she helps to pour them into an extra large basin and stirs the mixture herself, carefully smoothing out every lump. Then there is the tin to be greased, and the oven to be heated. Though Clemence cannot put the pudding in herself, she knows just how big the flame ought to be. There her share in the preparation necessarily ends at present, but she goes off with the satisfactory feeling that she has practically made the pudding for lunch.

'And', said Miss Simpson, 'that just shows how far you can go without being able to read or write.'

Educational Recipes

Miss Simpson summed up the position by saying that after all most people are agreed about the general principles on which education should be based—the important point is the proportions in which these ingredients are used.

'It makes all the difference between a good recipe and a bad one', she said, 'You must be firm, and yet you must let your child develop as freely as possible: you must treat it rationally, answering its questions as truthfully as you can, and yet you must not reason with it beyond its understanding: you must let its imagination grow, and yet you must be ready to balance that growth with all sorts of practical activities—the more useful they are the better. But though in cookery', she added, 'a good recipe suits everyone, in bringing up children you must suit your recipe to your child.'

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Our Contributors

DOROTHY WALTON BINDER is the wife of a well-known American journalist, and recently spent three years in Europe with her family. Her article in this issue, a first part which appeared in February, is an account of her experiences in various countries.

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MISS ALLISON'S
International Educational Agency
gives reliable advice on the choice of good and suitable schools, colleges, coaching establishments, etc., IN ENGLAND AND ABROAD. Details of requirements should be sent to MISS HELEN ALLISON, 34 BROOKLAND RISE, GOLDERS GREEN, N.W.11, who will be pleased to supply information, free of charge.
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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

A Monthly Magazine for Parents and Teachers

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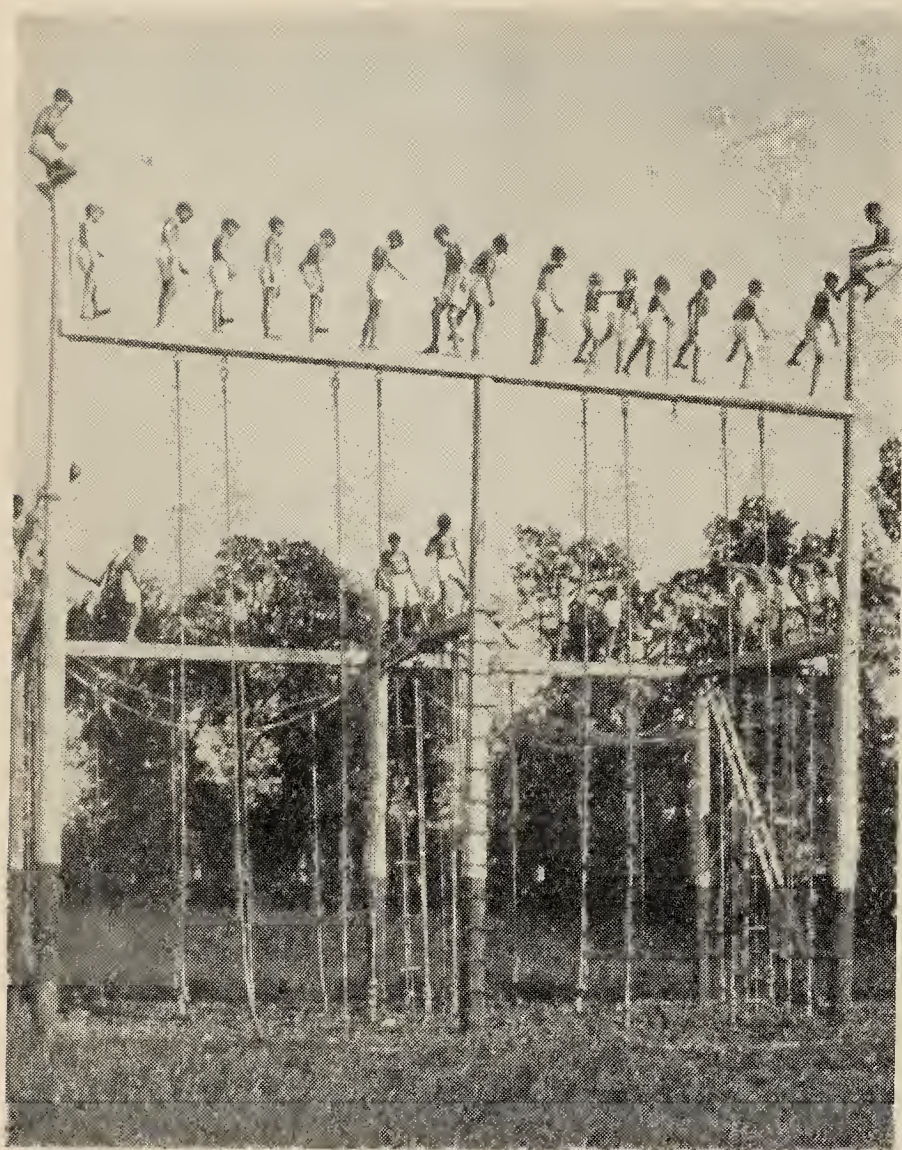
MARCH 1933

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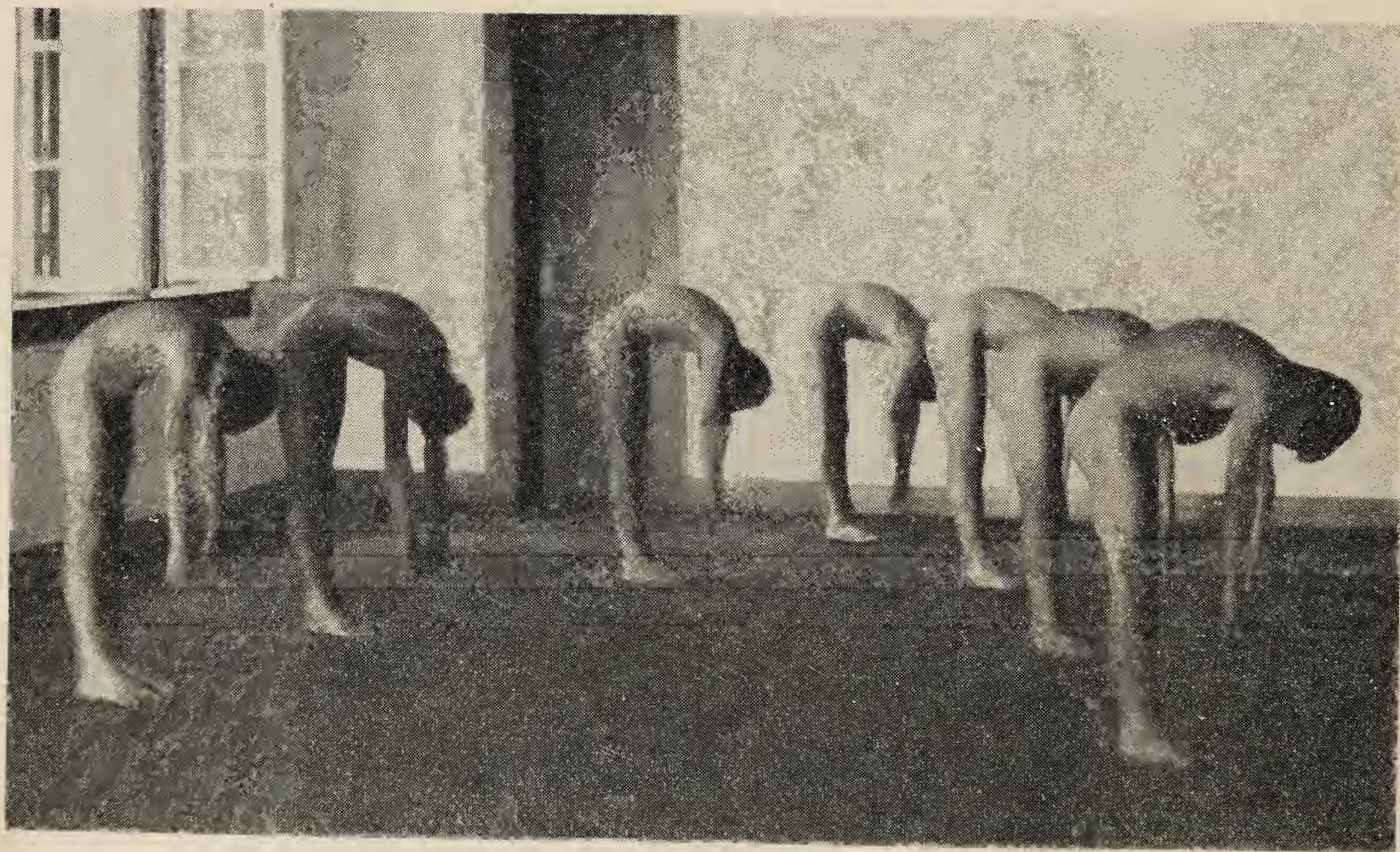
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PICTURES FROM FRANCE,
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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

THE problem of the twentieth century lies with the imagination and the will of man', wrote Lord Allen of Hurtwood in our last issue. This has never been more clearly demonstrated than during the past months at Geneva, while the League of Nations has been grappling with the problems of Disarmament and the Manchurian dispute.

The prolonged endeavours to reach a settlement, even if these are, as we must all profoundly hope, successful, have subjected this international governmental machinery to a crucial test. As a result, we are once again forced to wonder whether, in spite of having at our disposal a machine capable of safeguarding world peace and ensuring international co-operation, we do not nevertheless lack the knowledge, the imagination, and above all the will to use it.

*World
Mindedness* This aspect of the world crisis is well described in the phrase, 'passengers and crew argue while the ship drifts to destruction'.* The statesmen to whom the working of the international machine has been entrusted are faced with the criticism of supporters and opponents alike. In their turn, they, at every fresh deadlock, blame the rank and file of the nations they represent for the lack of understanding which prevents their leaders from effecting any radical change. There the matter ends. The public as a whole has neither time nor inclination to worry over the real cause of the deadlock, nor is it able, apparently, to realize that no international machinery can of itself bring about peace, disarmament or international co-operation. Unless the dynamic factor, the will of the peoples concerned, is directed to the achievement of these ends, the machine itself

must come to a standstill. As yet, comparatively few people are capable of thinking of themselves and of their country as units in a greater whole, and the League of Nations cannot hope to work successfully until the nations and their individual citizens think, and are prepared to act, as world citizens.

*World
Unity*

'Technically, man has achieved world-unity. This is not a Utopian dream, it is a grim reality'. *Science has drawn the world together, our economic destinies are closely interlocked, but the spirit of man lags far behind his technical inventions. Although there are in every country men and women who understand the spiritual counterpart of this economic and scientific interdependence, they are still lamentably few in number. But though their power to alter the course of events to-day is small, their power to alter it to-morrow is immense.

*The New Education
Fellowship*

The New Education Fellowship has long realized that the hope of world peace and world unity—of the rebirth of civilization—lies more with our children than with ourselves. If we applied ourselves purposefully to the task, we could, through wise education, raise up a new generation whose outlook on world problems would be that of world citizens. The world to-day, therefore, needs a new orientation and concentration of educational effort. If the ideals we set before us are to bear fruit, they must be *lived*; they must be practised in the small happenings of individual lives. But those who have been brought up in the old

*From *The Task of Education in a World Crisis*, by Dr. J. J. van der Leeuw—Published by the New Education Fellowship at 1s.

spirit of competition cannot easily substitute for it the new spirit of co-operation, which implies a fundamentally different attitude of mind. Only sane, poised and balanced personalities can live the larger life, free from fear, anxiety and self-seeking. The person who is maladjusted is in perpetual conflict with himself and wherever he goes inevitably creates conflict. Through education, we who perceive the ideal can give our children a wider vision and foster the spirit of co-operation in them from their earliest years.

Here lies the teacher's greatest opportunity. Every child must be given the environment, the freedom from imposed authority and the guidance that he needs in order to develop a fully integrated personality. The old discipline of fear and the old incentives of competition must both be banished. Self-discipline and collaboration, the voluntary and free adjustment of the individual to the real and not merely the supposed needs of community life, must take their place. Above all, our children must be taught to believe in the value to the world not only of their own national heritage, but also of that of other countries, so that their patriotism ceases to be a merely national emotion and is merged in the desire to serve mankind as a whole. Thus when our children come to take their share of responsibility as citizens, their natural attitude will be one of co-operation with all other persons and nations; and it will be inherent in them, since they will be equipped with the knowledge and the vision which will enable them both to think and act in terms of world citizenship.

World Fellows The New Education Fellowship stretches across the world. In every country, educators and groups of individuals connected with it are working towards the new ideal of world fellowship. In order to strengthen the links which bind together all those who believe that world-mindedness—the right thinking about world problems—is the dynamic force which alone can bring their solution nearer, a new form of membership of the Fellowship has been devised. All those who believe in world citizenship and in the vital need for educational reconstruction can now become World Fellows.

By banding together and keeping in touch with each other, World Fellows will not only strengthen the constructive forces working towards world harmony to-day, but will be helping each other to evolve new methods of equipping their children to meet the problems with which they will be faced when they are grown-up—problems, some of which we have failed to solve, some of which we do not even foresee.

World Fellows will receive two letters from headquarters every year specially written by friends of the Fellowship on the theme of world co-operation. They are also entitled to the services of the Fellowship wherever they go. But they do not become World Fellows in order to gain a tangible profit from their membership. They are asked to register their belief in this practical way so that there may be a body of individuals within the Fellowship fired by the same ideal and working towards the same end. We believe that it is in their power to create a corporate spiritual force which will gradually spread throughout society, making possible the task of educational reconstruction and preparing the way for a new generation of world citizens. Membership forms (subscription 5s. per annum) can be had on application to the Secretary, New Education Fellowship, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1. We hope that all those readers who have not already enrolled will do so at the earliest opportunity, for we believe that the great need of the present hour is corporate international effort along these lines.

The Changing Curriculum

The course of lectures on this subject held at 29 Tavistock Square, under the auspices of the *New Education Fellowship* and given by Mr. Happold of Bishop Wordsworth School and Mr. Compton, Director of Education for Barking, began very successfully on 16th February. Mr. Happold gives his last lecture on 9th March, and Mr. Compton begins his course on 23rd March. So much interest has been aroused by the announcement of these lectures that we have arranged to give a summary of each of them in note form in the *New Era*. These notes will be confined to the practical suggestions made by the lecturers and are designed to be of special assistance to teachers. They will begin in the April issue of this magazine.

Adventures in Education—I

Barking, Part II

A. J. LYNCH

Last month, the internal arrangements of the Barking Schools were under review; this month attention is directed to several matters that affect the schools of the Borough as a whole.

BARKING recently became incorporated. It celebrated the occasion by producing a pageant which owed much of its success to the wide and whole-hearted co-operation of the schools. The purpose of this article is not to describe that function, but to point to it as a symbol of what schools, rightly directed, may be encouraged to do. History was made to live.

Choirs and Dramatic Work

There are, however, many other enterprises, more closely connected with the administration of the schools, which are well worthy of note. School choirs, for instance, are not unusual, but a school choir accompanied, with taste and skill, by a few brass instruments is not common. The purity of tone, and the excellent rendering of the songs were a tribute to the understanding and careful enthusiasm with which this venture was directed. Dramatic work is undertaken in many of the schools in connection with the teaching of English, and both the actual production of plays and the educational use made of them are highly commendable.

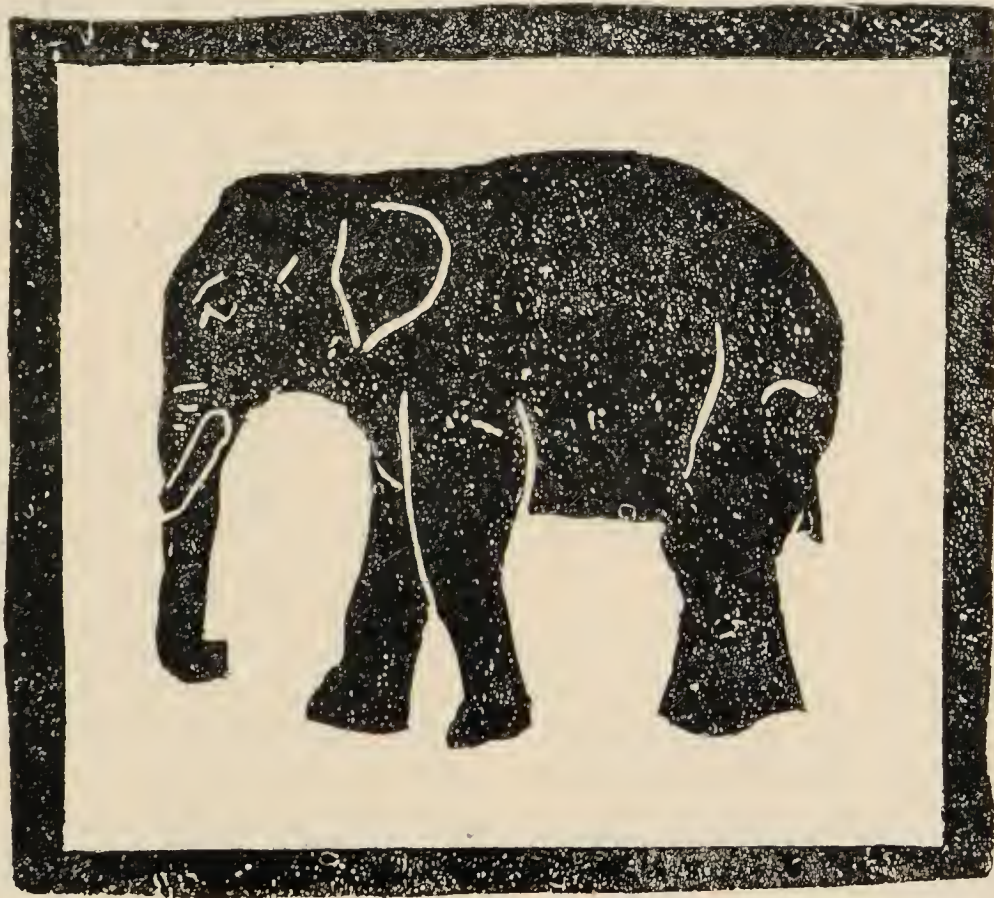
Voluntary Associations and School Clubs

In one of the schools, for one period each week, the pupils are allowed to dissolve from classes and to attend meetings of voluntary associations. Each pupil works according to

his bent, thus giving valuable indications of his individual characteristics. There are scientific, geographical, art, horticultural, craftwork, woodwork, metalwork, dramatic, choral, athletic, historical and philatelic societies. In connection with these associations, visits are made to places of educational value. This development appears to be an interesting variation of the old 'optional' lesson. Outside lecturers are sometimes invited to address the pupils, and heads of administrative departments—doctors, for example—willingly co-operate in this work.

School Clubs are beginning to be formed in one or two schools. The importance of this development cannot be over-estimated. In times when the incidence of delinquency among adolescents shows an increase, it is particularly appropriate that work of this kind should be attempted and encouraged. The problem of teaching an intelligent use of leisure is a pressing one and it is significant and encouraging to

find that it is not difficult to attract youths to the craft-rooms after school hours. But it is not on this ground alone that such work is important. Many a teacher has been depressed by the fact that some pupils, as they reach fourteen, are glad to part company with the school and all it stands for. The alteration of this attitude is not only good for the leaver, but for education



Lino-cut from a Barking School

itself, since it is on the *leavers'* attitude to the school that the future of education will largely depend.

Parent Teacher Co-operation

One of the gravest defects of the elementary school system in the past has been the lack of real co-operation between the home and the school. The idea that there is a no-man's land between the two, across which teachers would not venture and into which parents were not encouraged, persists all too frequently in some quarters. It is a crazy idea and does irreparable harm both to the school and the home. It emphasizes in an undesirable way a fact, known to all teachers, that many children live two lives—and even speak two languages—one of the school and one of the home. The problem of co-ordinating the two is admittedly difficult, but rightly handled, it is not insuperable. Anything that would break down the barrier is welcome. Exhibitions and open days form a common meeting ground for parent, teacher and child. In Barking, there is an open-day throughout the Borough once a year. Visits to the schools by the parents, which enable new contacts to be made and allow actual observation of the teaching and of the kind as well as the excellence of the work, are fruitful in very many directions.

Exploration—In Barking and London

The Barking Authority owns its own chars-à-banc. These are used for many purposes. One is for the conveyance of the mentally or physically defective children who attend the open-air school, but they are also used to convey the pupils who make from their schools what are known as 'shorter school journeys'.



Lino-cut from Barking School

It has often been a matter of surprise that more use is not made in teaching of 'local' illustrations in the shape of historical buildings and industries to elucidate points in connection with local government, or history, or economic geography. In any study of local government one would turn naturally to the Town Hall. It is astonishing how few pupils understand what is done there; indeed, ignorance of these matters is not confined to the pupils of a school, it is found in adults also. It is equally astonishing to see with what interest, and even awe, the visitors look upon

such institutions and works once they have been properly introduced to them. A borough so close to Ford's works could scarcely afford to remain ignorant of them. School visits are planned therefore to such centres, as well as to the Thames Board Works and the nearest margarine factory. Wider afield, excursions are made to the Zoo, to the Tower, to Kew Gardens, to a newspaper office, or to any institution which will give the pupils new knowledge and a wider outlook.

Music

There has been another adventure in the realm of music. Mr. Chas. Wodehouse, whose name is a familiar one, gives, by arrangement with the Education Committee, two whole days a week to the schools. In consultation with the Director, programmes of music are drawn up and sent to the schools. Each programme is a combination of vocal and instrumental items of high standard. The schools themselves, either boys or girls, or both together, prepare the vocal items beforehand while the instrumental items are provided by competent

artists under the direction of Mr. Wodehouse himself. On a given day, the whole school assembles in its own school hall, and, for one hour, shares in a feast of good things. The response is remarkable, and, judging by the faces, the enjoyment is intense. The adventure, for it is a real adventure, is one that, by almost every test, is fully justified by its results. The following is a specimen programme, and the one to which the writer had the privilege of listening :

BARKING EDUCATION COMMITTEE.

CONCERT FOR SCHOOL CHILDREN

to be held on

Thursday, 8th December, 1932

and

Friday, 9th December, 1932.

The Winifred Osborne Quintet.

Solo Violin Florence Camerton

Solo 'Cello Vera Jacobsen

Programme.

1. Unison Song 'Contentment', *Mozart*.
2. First Movement from Quintet in E Flat, Allegro Brillante, *Schumann*.
3. Unison Song, 'Lullaby', *Schubert*.
4. Violin Solo, 'Rondino', *Beethoven*.
5. Two pieces from the Ballet 'Swan Lake' (scene waltz), *Tchaikowsky*.
6. Unison Song, 'Love leads to Battle', *Buononcini*.
7. Sonata for 'Cello, *Tartini*.
8. Children's Overture (arranged for pianoforte and strings), *Roger Quilter*.
9. Unison Song, 'The Praise of God', *Beethoven*.

Games and Sport

Little reference has been made to the large part sport plays in the form of organized games and in out-of-school activities. The adventure here, however, lies not so much in the sport itself as in the adequate provision of playing space attached to each school. It is true that this provision was made possible by the fact that a new and undeveloped area was being dealt with, but the vision displayed in making this ample provision is matter for gratitude. It might easily be the envy of some authorities, and might certainly be imitated by others.

The Pioneer Spirit

Such, in brief, are some of the adventures observed by the writer. These and a host of others are evidence of a pioneering spirit. They are set out not merely for adulation but to try to convey to the reader something of what is actually happening and what, it is hoped, will happen with increasing frequency in the elementary schools of this country. The interests of the children and of their future have all through been the major consideration. To the heads of the schools whose courtesy and assistance made his visits so pleasant and informing, the writer tenders his best thanks. To the Director and Assistant Director—Mr. J. Compton and Mr. Hutchinson—he would express his great obligation for permission to visit the schools and for information supplied. To the former, Barking itself owes a debt of gratitude. With real insight he caught the inwardness of the spirit of the Hadow Report on the *Education of the Adolescent*, and with wise guidance he and his Committee have applied it generously.

In our January number, we had an article, which aroused considerable interest, on the Gramophone as an aid to the teaching of Modern Languages. Our attention has recently been drawn to the excellence of the language records prepared by the Linguaphone Company. The Gramophone is becoming steadily more popular with modern language teachers, and the Linguaphone records are well suited for use in the classroom.

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Social Progress through Education

I—Education as an Instrument for the Direction of Social Change

WILLIAM BOYD

TO all educators, old and new, the people of home and school and the other agencies of personal influence, the world crisis comes as a challenge. What are they doing, what can they do, to help mankind through its present distresses?

Obviously, little or nothing so far as the immediate issues are concerned. The collective mentalities which will decide the outcome of impending negotiations about armaments, war debts, tariffs and currencies have already been formed for good or evil by them or their predecessors. The salvation of the world depends on whether the past education of the nations has given them wisdom, judgment and altruism enough to avoid the inevitable fate of those who are going blindly to their own interests whatever the result may be.

But on the longer view that looks ahead to civilization gradually remaking itself over the decades and the centuries, the educator may very properly apply his mind to the possibility of playing a definite constructive part. In spite of many discouragements mankind always turns hopefully to its schools in the critical ages when it loses its old securities and needs to strike its tents and march out into the unknown. Education will get its chance to justify this faith in the days just ahead. What are the prospects of success?

Conscious Thought in Social Life

So far as the school in the past has influenced social development and brought about changes it has been largely apart from any clear purpose or intention on anybody's part. The question that must now be asked is whether it is not possible by deliberate thought and action to determine the course of these changes by means of an ordered system of education. This is really part of the wider question which has been forced on all nations during the last century by the growing conviction that the business of government is to control human affairs

scientifically in the interests of the commonweal. The idea both in its political and its educational aspects is counter to the doctrine of *laissez faire*, according to which governmental interference with the economic and personal life of the people is always to be avoided lest it prevent the natural adjustments which come when things are left to follow their own course. With regard to education the *laissez faire* argument would run thus 'We do not know enough about the future to attempt to direct the movement of events; we do not know enough about the great forces making for change to be able to control them, either through the schools or otherwise; we do not know enough about education to make use of it in influencing society. It is far safer in every way to leave social evolution to take its own course without any interference'. To this argument our age pays but moderate respect. It may be true that we are very ignorant and that it is dangerous to interfere with social movements, but we have realized that the real issue is whether we are to be determined by social movements or whether social movements are to be determined by us. The general inclination is to decide for the latter. In this sense we are all socialists now—and nowhere more obviously than in education.

Historical Precedents

In actual fact, the idea of using education in the direction of human affairs is not a new one. It is true that in the humdrum ages the business of education is limited to the passing on of the accepted ideas of life, but, whenever great changes impend, the view of education as an instrument either for bringing about or preventing changes has always made its appearance. The first notable case of the kind was Spartan education. The success of a system of training in the soldierly virtues in stabilizing the little city state was unmistakable, and it has exercised an extraordinary influence on the world's thought, through the idealization of it in Plato's

Republic in which was set forth the doctrine that the perfect state can only come through the perfect education. A second precedent of great historical consequence was the institution of the Jesuit system of education at the end of the sixteenth century. The Jesuits brought about a counter Reformation in Europe by establishing excellent schools in which the Catholic attitude to life was produced and fixed in accordance with the carefully thought-out scheme of the *Ratio Studiorum*; and in the wider field of the world they were pioneers in using education as a means of propagating Christianity among the heathen.

Modern Instances

The conception of education as a directive force has been growing in clearness in recent times. The Americans, for example, have not been slow to recognize that the school, with its common language and its flag-saluting, exercises a powerful influence in creating and fostering patriotism in its heterogeneous population. Germany under the influence of Bismarck's state socialism used the school for the strengthening of the German empire and created a great system of technical education in the service of German trade. War and after-War experience has increased the faith of the European nations in the school and led to some very interesting attempts at social control through education. The most extraordinary of these is the scheme of education by which Russia is seeking to create a nation of Marxian socialists, with which must be coupled the policy of the present rulers of Italy to foster Fascism through the schools. Similar in character is the endeavour of the Irish Free State to strengthen the nationalist sentiment by compelling the schools to teach Irish Gaelic with a view to making that the language of Ireland. In Britain and America the same tendency is evident on a smaller scale, in the attempt to control opinion—in Britain through an Act of Parliament directed against Communism, forbidding the teaching of blasphemous and seditious doctrines to children—and in some of the American states in the movement for the prohibition of any teaching in schools that calls in question the inspiration of the Bible or the perfection of the revolutionary leaders.

Education as a Conserving Agent

It is important to note that in most of the instances in which education has been used consciously to control the course of social development, the aim has been to protect old customs and institutions threatened by the rise of new ideas or practices. Sparta used education to continue in the primitive ways that the rest of Greece had abandoned. The Jesuits taught the old faith as against the new. Similarly in recent cases the anti-revolutionary parties are trying to make public opinion stand still at the old levels by safeguarding the schools against the incoming of destructive modern thought. This confirmation of old ways by education is a comparatively simple task. It has three things in its favour: *first*, its aim is simple and obvious—it is content to reproduce what is already in existence, not to think out anything new; *second*, its method is equally simple and obvious—it confirms the old ways and condemns the new by mass suggestion; *third*, it has the backing of the majority of the older generation, including a good many who in their practice have abandoned the old ways, and have a sense of guilt about it.

Social Improvement Through Education

It must not be forgotten that even within the conservative limits that exist in the states of to-day education has actually effected very definite changes for the better. Public health, for instance, stands at a higher level throughout the world because of the education given in the schools. On a bigger scale are the changes in national life effected by governments acting through the schools in countries like Germany, Japan and America. But the conditions under which such changes take place must be clearly realized before assuming the possibility of really revolutionary changes by like methods.

(a) The first point to observe is that in all these cases those responsible for educational policy have had a quite clear idea of the changes which they aimed at producing. Japan, for example, had before her as a working model the civilization of the West and the kind of education on which it is based. In America, again, where the aim has been to Americanize a mixed multitude, the guiding idea is supplied by the need for a common language and by the

minance of Anglo-Saxon traditions of law and government. In both of these cases the aim has been in sight all the time and in the latter it has always been embodied in the practice of the most influential section of the community. Consequently it has been a comparatively simple matter to put the children and youth in a social environment approximating to that of the real, under teachers who themselves have been shaped by it.

(b) The second point is that, broadly speaking, there has either been no deep disagreement as to the desirability of producing the particular changes, or the responsible government has been able to overcome disagreement. The

general will of the community, as that comes to consciousness in the minds of the ruling classes, and even to some extent among the body of the people, has been set in the direction of the change. There has been no serious open opposition to confuse the efforts of the schools to produce the effect sought.

The conclusion suggested by these facts is that whenever there is a general will for some definite social change, the school can be made the instrument of betterment. But what about the more fundamental changes that must be made if the urgent problems of our own times are to be solved? Does the road to the new world lie through the school?

Across Europe in Pursuit of Education

DOROTHY BINDER

Part II

WHEN we left Italy that July we had no idea where the children would continue their schooling in the fall. The *paterfamilias* had suddenly been ordered to Russia. The great question to be solved was whether we should leave the children in a boarding school or whether I should settle with the children somewhere accessible to Moscow. Most boarding schools in Europe do not specialise in small children, and the more I thought of leaving them for the better part of a year, the less I could bring myself to it. I had seen so many miserable youngsters in Europe left here and there by their parents with new and often terrifying adjustments to make to each new environment. We considered Paris, Berlin, Dresden and Frankfurt, both from the point of view of schools and nearness to Russia, when someone suggested Vienna. It sounded ideal, and after packing up the breadwinner for Russia, we set forth one day ourselves across Switzerland and its gleaming mountains into Austria.

Vienna, The Children's City

It was a hot September day when the train approached Vienna. We had sat in a crowded compartment on the last lap from Salzburg,

one child gazing delightedly out of the window at castled hilltops, one curled up drawing pictures, while the other passengers grunted and mopped their brows. As we neared the terminus the other occupants began to whisper. Finally a portly Viennese who had been practising his Italian on us acted as spokesman: 'We wish to congratulate you, Madame', said he, 'on the charming behaviour of your children. We hope you will like Vienna'. That man never knew what his welcome meant. We didn't know a soul in Vienna, but we had written for advice to the Society of Friends who still maintained a centre after their child feeding had ceased, and had received an address where we could stay temporarily. We gave the address to the taxi-driver and presently found ourselves climbing the grey stone steps of what I surmised was a pension. Mentally I practised my German speech on the threshold, when the door was suddenly flung open and a handsome woman bursting with good-nature said in English: 'Well, here you are. Come right in. You would like a bath and a cup of tea wouldn't you?'

If you have ever been about to settle in a strange land with two small children, husbandless, friendless and ignorant, you will

understand why I could have hugged that woman on the spot.

Vienna, I discovered, is a children's town. I don't believe there is another city in the world which makes better provision for its future generation. Education, psychology, extra-school activities, such as cinemas, theatres, lectures and music, swimming and wading pools, children's homes, play schools, a free behaviour clinic for mothers; everything that a municipality can give for its children is provided generously and intelligently.

As a foreigner I was more hospitably received than anywhere in Europe. The Austro-American Institute of Education, an inter-cultural society, put itself out to give me all the information I wanted about schools and even found me a house to live in. As housing facilities are extremely limited in Vienna I was forced finally to choose a school near our new home. But I never regretted it. We lived in the front half of a villa on the edge of the famous Wienerwald and the children ran down the mountain to their respective schools, one to the 'Madchenschule', the other to the 'Knabenschule'. They were the free board schools of Vienna, as progressive as any system of free schools in the world.

Adventures in Geography and History

The school curriculum was, I thought, unusually advanced. There was freedom of expression and a good deal of informality in the schoolroom and yet there was no abuse of it. School sessions were in the morning only, but the children acquired so much of the three R.'s in those short hours that they were ahead of their classes in technique all of the next year. The method of teaching history and geography was particularly interesting. Believing in orienting children in their own environment first, they began by teaching them about the neighbourhood in which they lived. They were taken on walks to explore the village most of them were born in but had probably never thought of as a geographical unit. They discovered the source of the Dornbach, the brook after which the village was named, away up in the hills and found to their surprise that it flowed into the Danube as did many another brook. They made maps of the village, the

streets, the shops, the schools, the church, the ancient castles and the surrounding mountains.

From their own community they went further afield to the city. Vienna is divided into districts. District 1 is the ancient city enclosed within the remains of its mediæval wall and gates. The history of Vienna, from the siege of the Turks, right down through its brilliantly militaristic career, is fascinating to children. Carroll's class was taken up to the top of the Stefanskirche one day and he has never forgotten the tale of the old watchman. In the old days this was the place of vantage where the head of the fire department guarded the safety of the city. Another time they were taken on the Danube—the culmination of a study of how rivers are made and how they are used.

I visited the history class one day. I didn't have to get permission from the Board of Education and present credentials to the headmaster as I had in Italy. I merely walked in and was welcomed. In the Italian public schools the children stand and salute when a visitor enters and are then put through their paces. But here in Austria no one paid any attention to me. I sat in the back of the room unnoticed. The teacher suggested that the children should take their guest on a tour of Vienna and point out the places of interest. They got out their city maps and they took me from Dornbach on the correct tram to the centre of town, from whence I was led to all the things they thought ought to interest anyone; the Prater, the old markets, the quaint little churches, the various monuments and then, to my amusement and amazement, to the seven municipal breweries of Vienna. I thought of America and prohibition and what our pedagogues would have said if they had heard my eight-year-old son rattling off this geographical item. But breweries are after all as important to Vienna as clothing factories are to Chicago; and though I doubt if many Chicago children know the location or importance of its clothing factories, it might be just as well if they did.

Beyond the third form the children study the different sections of Austria in fact as well as in their school books. The class goes for



Often they sing as they go

week's excursion with its teacher, their knapsacks on their backs, living in youth hostels and cheap pensions. Everywhere one sees bands of these children in the mountains and in the villages as well as in the cities. Austrian children know their country and love it—not from skimming through it in automobiles, but intimately: its forests, its peoples, its mountaintops. Often they sing as they go, and one sees the leader frequently heading the procession with an accordion.

The love of music develops perfectly naturally in such a wholesome background. Children grow up in the tradition that music is not just for the gifted but for everyone, and there are educators in Vienna who appreciate the possibilities of a new kind of music education. I watched a class under the leadership of the musical director of the free schools compose original music to a poem. The children offered contributions freely and criticized each other until they had what they wanted. The director remained in the background merely

keeping records of the children's ideas. The final result voted upon by the class was a little jewel and they were all delighted with themselves.

School is a much more serious matter in Austria than it is in either England or America. The competition for jobs in adult life has been so terrific that it permeates even the lower school where bad marks and laziness are heinous crimes. Thus physical culture is important and encouraged for reasons of health, but the emphasis on games for games' sake, common with us, is absent in Austria. Altogether, however, the reform movement in the schools since the overthrow of the monarchy has resulted in a most progressively and intelligently planned course of study.

But to a parent the test of a school is, I suppose, how her own children fit into it. For two little strange Americans, I cannot conceive of a pleasanter school experience than this. The Austrian youngsters did not emphasize differences, but likenesses. Their parents

opened their homes hospitably to us and we were never made conscious that our German wasn't as good as their own. After two years of absence, they still write to their old school friends, while the greatest ambition of their lives is to go back to Vienna.

We Go to England

The next September found us in England. Co-education, we knew, was not prevalent in England and a co-educational day school was a rarity. We still clung to our theory that it was better for the children to have a background of family life than to have to face everything new alone. So we hunted and found one of the few co-educational day schools in London with a house nearby. It couldn't have been a better succession to the intensive intellectual training they had had in Austria. The games, the hand-work, the dramatics, the self-expression in debate and recitations in their own language was a perfect balance for the previous three years. They loved the freedom of the little huts used for classrooms and the open playing field just outside. Carroll was bewildered by the hazing which was to initiate him into English school life and which apparently isn't escapable even in a progressive school. He had been a foreigner in Italy and Austria but even there they had never treated him like this. He felt as if he belonged in England. His own grandfather was a Londoner and English was his language. It was baffling and it hurt. They made fun of what was left of his American accent by talking through their noses at him

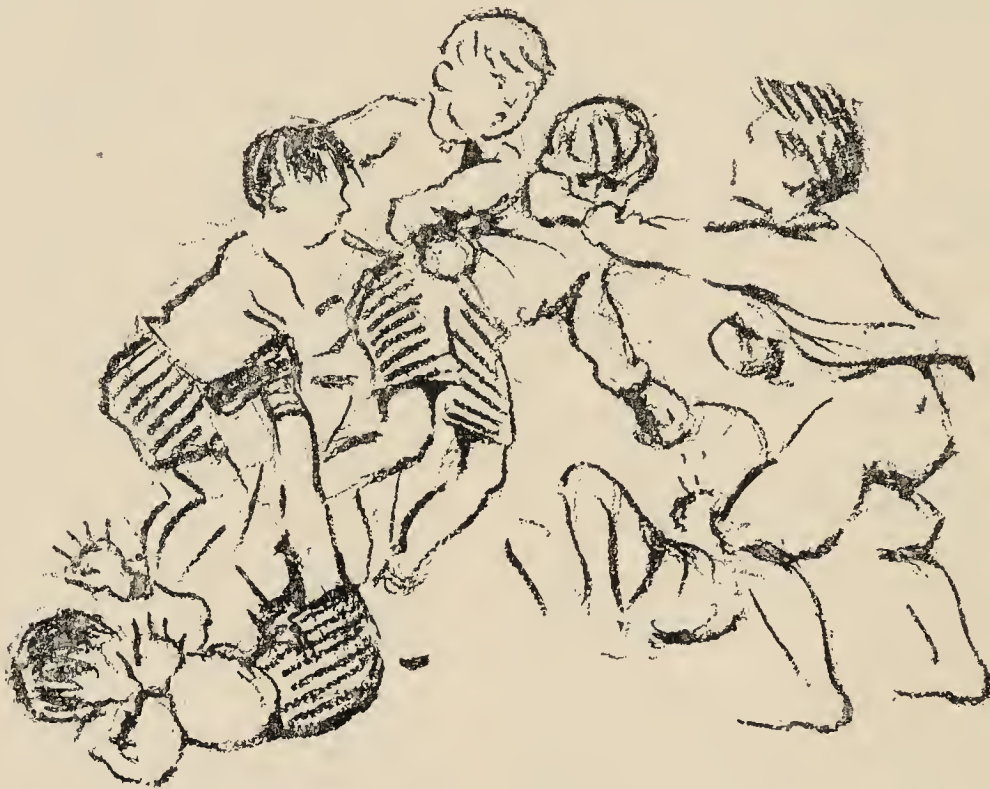
until he learned their accent and their phrases.

'I had to fight off eight Englishmen to-day Mother,' he confided one afternoon after school. 'They all lay in wait for me and jumped on me at the same time.' There were painful weeks when fighting to hold his own seemed to be the most important part of the school curriculum. But he finally won out and was accepted as an 'old boy'. His triumph was complete when the school held its field day and he heard his late tormentors cheering his winning records in jumping and running.

Girls apparently escape hazing. At least Sis settled in with perfect naturalness and enjoyed every minute of her school year.

This fourth year in England ended our European adventures. The children landed in New York hardened and accomplished travellers. The lovely English accents they had acquired with such pain lasted about two weeks.

Their American playmates taunted them for talking 'funny' and having learned their lessons before, it took them no time at all to exchange 'Well, of all the cheek' for 'Oh Yeah'. But although they have learned to conform in unessentials, they have had an international training with many advantages and few disadvantages. They are as much at home in America again as if they had never been away. And Europe is not a place from whence come 'dagoes', 'Hunkies' and monocled snobs, the conception of too many American children, but a land of many congenial friends, of fascinating history and landscape and happy memories.



Ann Stafford

'I had to fight eight Englishmen to-day.'

The Psychoanalytic Treatment of Asocial Children

MELITTA SCHMIDEBERG

ASOCIAL behaviour can be brought about in an individual both by external and internal factors. An under-nourished child, starved of affection, and exposed to nothing but bad examples is likely to become asocial. But if such a child continues to be asocial after he is put in better surroundings, if a child develops badly in spite of normal conditions, the trouble is due to inner causes. It is for the psychotherapist to recognize and treat these. This article deals exclusively with the inner or psychic causes of asociality.

It is usually assumed that asocial behaviour is due to the absence, or poor development, of those moral feelings which in the normal individual repress and control the primitive instincts. Those who hold this view seek to awaken and develop moral feeling in the asocial child or, where this is impossible, to check the evil impulses by punishment.

In the psychoanalytic treatment of such children and adolescents, I have found that asocial behaviour is due to various, generally very complicated, processes and not merely to lack of moral feeling. For instance, asocial behaviour may be the expression of normal aggression which fails to find a normal outlet.

Aggression—Normal and Repressed

Lottie (11½ years old) was sent for treatment because she had lied abnormally for many years, generally with the object of setting school and parents, or the parents themselves against one another, with the result that the school did not want to keep her any longer. She had also committed some petty thefts. Lottie was a pretty and intelligent girl who, however, loved neither her parents nor anyone else. She seemed to have no feeling, and never showed any pleasure, or any phantasy. She lacked to an unusual degree the power to criticize, and even to be normally aggressive. As an illustration, she let her four-year-old sister pull her hair until tears of pain came into her eyes, but refused to defend herself even when told to by

her mother. When she spoke of occurrences which ought to have touched her, the death of her dog, or undeserved snappiness on the part of a girl friend, she used to tell me 'Mama says . . .', 'Papa says . . .'; and whenever I asked her what she *herself* thought about it, she shook her head and answered with a friendly smile: 'I?—but what should *I* think about it?' Since earliest childhood her greatest endeavour had been to be a good child, and she had thus repressed her aggression to such an extent that she could not defend herself or have an opinion of her own. When she said, after a time, that she preferred coloured Christmas candles to white ones, this represented her first independent opinion, to which she had been helped by the analysis.

The aggression was never fully repressed, however, but expressed itself in other ways, especially in lying. In school, she maintained, for weeks that her mother had been operated upon, expressing her hatred in this lying phantasy. Her attempts to set people against one another were also an expression of her hatred and jealousy. She refused sweets which her mother wished to buy her on the ground of her parents' poverty, but stole them afterwards when her longing became too strong. Her aggression underwent this excessive repression because it was unconsciously bound up with deeply-rooted conflicts. She was unable to form an independent opinion even about the most harmless matters, because as a small child she had not dared to judge her parents' sexual life and had had to repress her criticism of them. As the analysis brought the connection between her repressed aggression and her sexual phantasies and observations into consciousness, her imagination became more active and she began to show normal feeling. Her treatment lasted six months and in the next two years she developed very satisfactorily.

Primitive Instincts—Effects of Anxiety

In other cases the primitive instincts common to all are so abnormally strengthened by

anxiety as to result in anti-social behaviour. Willy ($8\frac{1}{2}$ years old) stole all he could reach, was sexually shameless, and unusually aggressive; he thrust a boy so violently down the stairs that he had to be sent to hospital. He was influenced neither by kindness nor by severity, he looked upon every one as his enemy and every act of another as unjust or malicious. Analysis revealed that while unrestrained in his asocial behaviour, he was strongly inhibited in normal activities such as play, and further that his abnormal restlessness expressed anxiety while his asocial actions represented a defence against feared attacks. On one occasion, when he had spoiled something in the room, he attacked me with a pole and struggled desperately when I tried to take it away. At last he said he feared I might strike him on the head with it. When I explained that I would never do that, and that he feared it as a punishment for the damage he had done, he calmed down. Once, in playing, he pretended that he was a little boy, who stole fruit in the market, and said: 'He must steal because he is so hungry. His mother wants to starve him for being such a vagabond, and as to his father—well, he is worse still'. He was abnormally greedy, and this, like his stealing, was largely due to fear of starvation. In reality he had enough to eat, but as an infant he had not been breast-fed and had lacked love (he was an orphan, and at three was put with foster parents whom he regarded as his parents). His fear of starvation and his belief that everybody was his enemy were rooted in that early period. The evil he feared from people represented both punishment for harm he wished to do them and for forbidden sexual phantasies and play. So his forbidden impulses induced anxiety, and this he could only fight by asocial behaviour. But this in turn only increased his anxiety further. The analysis was able to break this vicious circle. By tracing back his anxiety to its original sources and thus lessening it, I was able to help him not to feel that other people were enemies, but to receive and acknowledge their kindness as such, and to become social through love to those around him. Two years have passed since his treatment (which had lasted seven months): he gives satisfaction at home and in school: he does not steal any

more, and does not get into trouble: his restlessness is very much less.

Unconscious Factors

The importance of unconscious factors in asocial behaviour is best illustrated by the connection between the latter and the psychoneuroses.

Elly ($12\frac{1}{2}$ years old) was brought for treatment because of hysterical symptoms, but it soon appeared that serious derangements of character were also present. She was a girl of premature development with a rather impudent face; she frequently stopped away from school; was two forms behind the standard for her age, and cared only for boys and clothes. She made appointments with numerous boys usually with several at a time, and kept changing her friendships. She had not yet had sexual intercourse but her whole attitude gave the impression that, once intercourse had taken place, she would probably soon become a prostitute.

It appeared that she had been a shy and reserved child until the age of nine and among other neurotic symptoms she had performed obsessional washing. Analysis was able to prove that her later behaviour and peculiar attitude to boys, as well as her hysterical symptoms were due to the same causes as the self-absorption in childhood. She had a horror of being dirty, caused by ruthless training in cleanliness habits in early childhood: the fear felt at that time, whenever she dirtied herself, remained. She feared no one would love her if she were dirty and therefore retired into herself or was compelled by her fear to be constantly washing herself. This same fear caused her later to spend hours before the mirror to see if she looked all right. If she could not have a new dress she felt 'so filthy', and her dress 'looked as if it came from the rag bag'. She always wanted new garments to allay her fear of being dirty just as in childhood she had had to be washed and newly clothed when she had dirtied herself. In order to convince herself that she was not bad and dirty as she feared, but was admired and loved, she had to be always with boys. But her anxiety made her over-sensitive, and in everything people said she detected criticism. When she felt herself ill-treated, she absented

herself from school or from treatment, or left the boy in favour at the time in the lurch. But then she feared the boy's revenge, and was obliged to rush into relations with another to ensure defence against the former. Then the same was played over again. Her indifference at school was due to (imagined) ill-treatment by the teacher; her abnormal vanity was due to anxiety; and while it seemed at first that she was having a game with the boys, the analysis showed that it was anxiety which drove her from one to another.

The Effect of Early Lack of Affection

All these children lived in orderly surroundings. Their parents or foster-parents were decent people who set them no bad example. These patients had all, however, been unlovingly treated in their earliest years, and when, at the age of two or three, they came to good foster-parents it was impossible for the latter to make good the mental injuries sustained through their early privation. This privation increased the hatred and anxiety of these children to such an extent that they could not overcome them by normal means, and thus they became asocial. Their continued bad behaviour led to punishment on all sides, and so aggravated the anxiety, leading to the bad condition in which they were on commencing analysis. The early ill-treatment could not be made good by any kindness shown later, for the asocial attitude was not due to the privations but to abnormal mental processes arising out of them. These processes were, in the children described, so powerful that all such pedagogic measures as severity and kindness remained ineffective, whilst even psychotherapeutic treatment had failed with most of them.

I have emphasized the extent to which the asocial behaviour of these children was caused by anxiety and a sense of guilt. But most asocial children show, at first, no sense of guilt nor anxiety; they carry out their asocial acts with pleasure and show no regret unless expecting punishment. For example, Willy spoke of stealing as a matter-of-course, and said: 'I pinch things for fun'. Only when the analysis had brought his anxiety and hatred into consciousness and weakened them, could

his need of love appear. With the wish to please those around him came regret for wrong done, and an attempt toward social orientation.

It is more or less typical of such asocial children that they really love no one. This is due to the fact that their early feelings of love are so closely bound up with sexual desires, jealousy and cruel phantasies, that the condemned hatred cannot be repressed without repressing love also. The analysis enables the child to develop a normal emotional life in so far as it brings these conflicts to light and thus makes it possible to solve them.

These asocial children have certainly no normal moral feeling, but my experience suggests that they *have* moral impulses in a distorted form. It may be that, as in the case of savages, whilst lacking *our* morals they have their own. Thus Steinmetz reports, in his work 'Endokannibalismus' (1891), that when a European reproached a cannibal friend, the latter said *he* ate only cooked meat while Europeans ate raw meat also—a thing only proper to wild animals. Europeans draw the distinction between human flesh and animal flesh; the cannibals draw it between cooked and raw. Similarly I found that these asocial children, whilst quite unrestrained in many ways, had nevertheless an extremely strict conscience, though it functioned abnormally. Thus in Willy's case I noted the following paradox: he could not play ball lest he might break a window accidentally, yet soon afterwards I had difficulty in preventing him from breaking it purposely with his hand.

Lack of Insight Caused by Anxiety.

The case of sixteen-year-old Herbert shows that failure to recognize one's own behaviour as abnormal is not caused merely by lack of intelligence nor of moral qualities. Herbert was unable to attend school because he suffered from unbearable anxiety. After some weeks' analysis this was lessened and he felt quite well, but he said he had no desire for further analysis since his inactivity did not worry him and he only wished to be left in peace. After some time I was able to prove to him that he was really very ambitious but that anxiety—of which he would not be clearly conscious—did not allow him to achieve anything or even

to wish to do so. At three years old, he had been very stubborn, and this stubbornness had been broken by severity; but with his stubbornness disappeared his ambition and his attempts towards independence. Originally he had wished to do great things in order to outstrip his parents, but through fear of them he renounced all revolt (including ambition and achievement). He now showed such an extraordinary desire to please everyone that he dared not have an idea of his own or do anything at all. Thus he feared that his preference for Latin might displease the Mathematics Master and that the Latin Master might not like it if he gave preference to Mathematics. This double desire prevented him from learning either Latin or Mathematics. Similarly he was afraid to prefer either of his parents to the other and he solved his conflict by withdrawing himself, at first from the parents, and then from all other people. But his earlier stubbornness also found disguised expression in this behaviour, for by his extreme obedience he made fools of his parents and teachers. Herbert's repressed wish to study, to achieve something, only became conscious when the analysis had lessened his anxiety. He could then satisfy rebellious and aggressive impulses in a socially useful form, and in one year the analysis enabled him to become a good pupil, independent and sturdy. Three years have passed, in which he developed extremely well.

It must be admitted that strict treatment may succeed in crushing the anti-social activity of asocial children, but it probably never succeeds in transmuting the forbidden impulses into social or intellectual achievement. But analytic treatment is able to diminish the hatred and anxiety by bringing the unconscious conflicts into consciousness and can—to a great extent—transform sexual impulses into sublimated interests and tender feeling. By removing the diseased urge toward asocial action, it makes the child normally capable of love. The desire for love induces the wish to please others and the child becomes social and educable.

Analysis and Education

Analysis and education, practised by different people, lead by different ways to

the same goal. By freeing the asocial (i.e. uneducable) child from those unconscious difficulties which oppose education and adaptation to the norm, the analysis should make the child educable. But when this has taken place, there still remains for parents and school the task of the actual education. Obviously a sympathetic education suited to each individual case is highly desirable. But in most cases, I could not do much to change the education of the children, as it was difficult to influence their educators, and a change of surroundings was impossible. Nevertheless I found that where the analysis had sufficiently diminished the child's difficulties, a good attitude was produced even where the environment was anything but ideal. Children found parental injustice and fickleness of mood easier to bear, and, on the other hand, the improvement in the children affected the parents beneficially. As the child became more normal the parental attitude changed rapidly, even without my advice.

Generally the aim in helping asocial children is considered to be the defence of society. But a successful analytical treatment is able also to save *the child* from a sad future spent, possibly in crime, certainly in an unhappy personal life. It may be objected, and with truth, that analytic treatment costs much time and, therefore, money (very abnormal children require from one to two years' treatment or even longer, if a complete cure is to be achieved; though often considerable practical results can be attained in a few months). But when one remembers that such treatment can change the whole future of the individual, and can obviate injury to society, one feels that the expenditure is justified. Reckoned in hard cash the money a criminal compels the State to spend on police, legal proceedings, prisons, together with the damage he does, is likely to be considerably more than the cost of healing an asocial child.*

* I understand, that since this had been written some attempt has been made in this country to regard criminality as a maladaptation from the medical point of view and to tackle the problem of criminality in a scientific way by forming *The Institute for Scientific Treatment of Delinquency*.

International Notes

FELLOWSHIP NEWS

Headquarters World Fellow Teas

During February the following gave short talks at the *Fellowship's* Friday teas: Dr. K. S. Cunningham, Secretary, *Australian Council for Educational Research*, on "Educational Research in Australia,"—Mr. A. J. Lynch on "My Visits to Barking and Chesterfield: Two Significant Educational Experiments," and Dr. J. F. Strong, Director of Education for Tottenham, on "The Co-ordination of Subjects in the Curriculum," with Dr. P. B. Ballard in the Chair. The hostesses were Mrs. William Moodie, Mrs. Ann Richardson, Miss Isabel King and Mrs. Reginald Raab.

Tea is served between 4.30 and 6 every Friday, 29 Tavistock Square, London, for any who care to come.

Our Scottish Secretary

Miss Grace Cruttwell, so well-known to *New Education Fellowship* members as the Secretary of the *Scottish Section*, has now retired from school work and from Scotland and has come to live in Somerset, her work for the *Scottish Section* being taken over by Miss C. R. Donald. Miss Cruttwell is now designing stained glass windows and in co-operation with Mr. James Hamilton of Aberdeen has produced a seven-light window which has recently been installed in the beautiful old thirteenth-century granite church of Edloshayle, near Padstow, Cornwall. The subject of the window is the Water of Life, with five figures including two of St. Petrock who is supposed to have built the original church. Those who have seen the window report that it is remarkable for its richness and brilliance. Enquiries should be addressed to Cruttwell and Hamilton, Oakfield, Frome, Somerset.

Exchange Correspondence Wanted

Miss Carlotta Pittman, 131 Clark Place, Memphis, Tennessee, U.S.A., would like to find, for her nine-year-old pupils, correspondents in England, France, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, Holland, Greece, China and India.

Miss Doris Daitz, Benjamin Franklin High School, 16 Norton Street, Rochester, New York, U.S.A., would like to exchange school newspapers and magazines with schools in England, France, Germany, Russia, Italy, India and Canada.

An Experiment in Tennessee

We are particularly interested to learn of the formation of the *Highlander Folk School* in Tennessee. It is a worker's education project in the Southern mountains. The organization is somewhat on the lines of the Danish folk High Schools, and a small group of workers, mostly drawn from the mining and textile industries, live together on a small farm. There are regular educational classes, but the main object is to teach those who otherwise would have no educational advantages to learn about themselves and society.

Death of C. W. Becker

On the eve of going to press, we learn with very deep regret of the death of Professor C. W. Becker. The *Fellowship* has sustained an irreparable loss. Professor Becker, late Minister of Education for Prussia, was one of the permanent Vice-Presidents of the *Fellowship's* International Conferences. An appreciation of his work will appear in our next issue.

OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

International Federation of Home and School

We learn from the *News and Notes* of the *Federation* that the Council of the *International Bureau of Education*, impressed by the disastrous effects on education which may result from the reduction in education budgets, has empowered the Director to make enquiries and, if advisable, to prepare an international conference to which the Ministers and supervisors of education of all countries shall be invited.

In Czechoslovakia, a study of the effect of co-education on pupils from 6 to 15 years of age, made by an association of women teachers, has resulted in a decision in favour of co-education. The summary of the inquiry states that co-education is beneficial when practiced from the beginning of school life, in schools where there are both men and women teachers and in classes which are not overcrowded.

Our attention has also been drawn to Dr. Maria Montessori's admirable pamphlet, *Peace and Education*, in which she reiterates her belief that the present day effort towards peace is too superficial, and that if we are to make real progress, we must go back to the child. The pamphlet has been specially prepared for teachers and can be obtained from the International Bureau of Education, Geneva, for 1 franc.

In this connection it is also interesting to note that the *Massachusetts Women's International League* has undertaken to gather together information on the effective methods of teaching worldmindedness and has prepared a travelling exhibit which includes plays, pageants, games, information regarding international schools and clubs, and material on classroom teaching.

From Suburban Classroom to Home-School in the Country

An interesting experiment was carried out last summer by children and teachers from the Dame Henrietta Barnett (Preparatory) School at Hampstead Garden Suburb.

A group of about forty boys and girls, with their teachers, spent ten days at Digswell Park Conference House, in Hertfordshire, and there extended their education, not only by the study of nature at first hand, but by spending their out of school time in comradeship with their teachers. The experiment was entirely successful and the appreciative letters

sent from teachers and pupils to the Conference House testify to the pleasure and profit derived from the visit.

Conference of New Ideals in Education

This conference will be held at Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford, from Saturday, 15th April to Thursday, 20th April. The subject is *The Education of the Whole Man*. An excellent programme of lectures has been arranged, and members will stay at Lady Margaret Hall, to which a beautiful new building has just been added. We hope that many of our readers will be able to attend this conference which gives to those who are keenly interested in educational developments an opportunity of exchanging views, pooling the results of their experience and meeting experimenters who might otherwise remain isolated. Full particulars will be found on page vi.

NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION

One of the most useful pieces of work carried out by the *Nursery Schools Association* is the publication of pamphlets on various aspects of Nursery School work. Altogether, the Association has published twenty-five of them. The recent pamphlet on Diet is frequently asked for, but the last pamphlet to be published, *Variations within the Nursery School Movement*, has been in considerable demand. Heads of training colleges, Education Authorities, and the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education have wished to see it. *The School-*

master gave it a warm welcome. The Association is now revising its pamphlet (No. 17) on *Nursery School Buildings and Equipment*. It will comprise two points, one dealing with the Site, Buildings, and Fixed Equipment, the other with Movable Equipment, Apparatus, and Play Material. It will be ready in a few days.

In spite of the national depression the Nursery School Movement continues to make progress. The "Save the Children Fund" Committee for the establishment of Open-air Nurseries in connection with Occupational Centres is pursuing its work with vigour. Inquiries relating to Nursery Schools already established, and to the possibility of starting others are frequently made at the office. It is a tribute both to the pioneering spirit of those whose labours founded the *Association* and to the fact that more and more the importance of the pre-school years is coming to be fully recognized.

It happened recently that an injunction was granted to a neighbour of Miss Tudor-Hart to restrain her from carrying on a Private Nursery School in Hampstead because of the noise made by the children. The cost of this case (£800) has to be paid by Miss Tudor-Hart, and to meet this she will be forced to sell her house in which the school is now conducted. A fund to help Miss Tudor-Hart to begin again elsewhere has been opened by the *N.S.A.* to which all members are invited to contribute, however small the sum. All contributions should be sent, without delay, to the Secretary, *N.S.A.*, 29 Tavistock Square, W.C.1.

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Bookshelf

Talents and Temperaments: The Psychology of Vocational Guidance. By Angus Macrae, London; Nisbet and Cambridge University Press, 1932. Price 5s.

One of the greatest problems facing parents and teachers is the advising of boys and girls as to the choice of suitable careers. The person who can help to solve this problem is the vocational psychologist, and in *Talents and Temperaments* Dr. Macrae explains in a very clear and delightful way how the vocational psychologist sets about his task.

Anyone who has to face the problem of giving vocational advice to young people or who is in any way interested in the subject, should read this book. The author has had considerable experience in the practice of psychological vocational guidance, since for several years Dr. Macrae has been engaged in this work at the National Institute of Industrial Psychology.

Vocational guidance has suffered a good deal at the hands of enthusiastic amateurs who, with the best of intentions, have made free use of psychological tests without having adequate knowledge of, or training in, the underlying technique. Throughout this book, Dr. Macrae emphasizes the dangers of his procedure and the ill effects which may result from the application of psychological methods in guidance by untrained people.

Badly conducted testing is dangerous, but even the results of good testing carried out by a competent person must always be considered in relation to other auxiliary information. Scholastic achievement, physical endowment, temperament, interests, hobbies and other aspects have all to be taken into consideration.

Dr. Macrae writes: 'Vocational guidance is an art rather than a science, and almost every case demands careful weighing of conflicting considerations and the formulation of a balanced judgment which cannot be arrived at by a simple process of logic or by the application of any rigid mechanical technique'. He mentions the difficulties the vocational psychologist has to face, and how in spite of these difficulties he obtains such a comprehensive and systematic survey of the individual's characteristics that . . . to an impartial person, comparing that technique with the ordinary procedure of guidance could have any doubt as to which of the two methods is calculated to produce better results'.

E. P. Hunt

A Modern Infant School. M. J. Wellock, University of London Press. 6s.

All readers of this magazine are probably convinced of the value of the kind of education which arouses the child's interest, encourages his initiative, and plans for all kinds of creative activity on bold and free lines. How many, however, really consider that such methods are possible in ordinary infant schools, where forty to fifty young children have one teacher and one room. Let these doubters read this book.

Here is a vivid picture of a school full of life activity and joy, where children play constructively with their teachers, and where their interests are intelligently followed and broadened.

There is no mention in this book of the difficulties of large numbers and few teachers or of inadequate premises. These difficulties are undoubtedly all present, as Miss Wellock's school is in one of the worst areas in London, and the numbers are as large as in any infant school. In this account of her work, it is abundantly proved that the progressive methods of freedom, activity, and play need not be confined to the small school, and if pursued fearlessly with ability and imagination, will have the same results with larger numbers of children coming from poor districts.

Miss Wellock's book is full of suggestions and inspiration for teachers, and her accounts of the way in which reading and writing and number knowledge developed out of play are full of real practical help to all working with little children.

The book, however, as Dr. Ballard says in his preface, is not intended to be slavishly followed, 'but rather to set out wide and numerous vistas' which should prove full of interest and of practical help to all teachers and particularly to those who are struggling to improve their methods in difficult circumstances.

C. Winifred Harley

Edward and Marigold. Marjorie Thorburn, Geo. Allen and Unwin. 5s.

This is the story of two quite ordinary children told with humour, common sense and charm. But it is intended, one imagines, for adults. Miss Thorburn traces the children's reactions to everyday events and to the grown-ups who have charge of them. She shows how frequently they are bewildered and even shocked by their parents, and how rarely the parents penetrate beneath the surface of their children's characters. Naughtiness, high spirits, fears and phantasies are traced by Miss Thorburn to their source—and yet the sound psychology which fills this book is never obtrusive. Every parent ought to read it—not once, but many times.

A.I.S.P.

'If the Blind Lead'. Alderton Pink. Benn. 8s. 6d. This forcefully and brilliantly written book should be widely read by all those who are interested in education in this country.

Mr. Pink is chiefly concerned to urge the necessity of revolutionizing our educational and, in particular, our university system. He directs his main attack on the conditions at our universities, which too often encourage the student to concern himself more with the past than with the present and the future.

He disposes once and for all of the widely held belief that the study of dead languages is valuable in 'training the mind'. The study of Arabic or Cross Word puzzles would also 'train the mind', but the

student must be urged to face the problems confronting the world to-day with understanding, convinced that the needs of the future are more important than mere scholarship which is concerned only with the past.

'The classical scholar has little of importance to say to modern times. The system of learning for which he stands is an effete tradition. In its long protracted parade of unreality it resembles the Holy Roman Empire. Can we any longer afford to let it absorb so much of our time and effort?'

Were this academic spirit to be found only in our universities the harm it does would be confined within limits. But it is particularly dangerous because the universities exert a reactionary influence over both Public school and secondary school education.

Although only a small proportion of boys from these schools go to the universities, the education of them all is directed to that end.

Reform of our university system is urgent if it is going to produce graduates capable of leading others, instead of merely following. It is possible that the revolt against the academic tradition will start at the bottom, through the preparatory schools.

Mr. Pink devotes the last section of his book to making suggestions which would bring the university curricula more into line with the present day needs. Let us hope they may be, at least, considered. Education generally is too full of dead wood. It ought to be, it must be, cut away.

J. W. White.

Is there a Case for Foreign Missions? *Pearl Buck. (John Day. 25 cents.)*

This is a most refreshing book. Pearl Buck has certain remarkable qualifications for asking and answering her question. She is herself a missionary; she is a writer who has shown her powers of sensitive observation and delicate presentation in that excellent novel *The Good Earth*; and she is a passionately eager searcher after the highest spiritual good.

She tackles her problem boldly and goes straight to all the well-known objections, and frankly owns that each of them contains considerable truth.

Certain aspects of missionary activities bring forth her scourged severity; the supporters who 'keep the missionaries in terror over their statistics of church members, so that members come to mean to them the sole criterion whereby they judge their success', and the snobbish building of an absurdly large temple, merely because the mission work in a certain famine-ridden little town was supported by a wealthy American church.

She is courteous, tolerant and loving towards other religions, but she has worked out the problem quite clearly to herself. It is that the greatest ideals, 'the noblest which we are capable even of thinking about, are inseparably connected with the figure of Christ. In nations where the figure of Christ has been perceived, however dimly, I find something I do not find elsewhere. To some degree the sick are cared for, the weak and defective are housed and cared for with tenderness, women are more honoured, people do

struggle somewhat for goodness. It is all too little, too badly done, but—here is the point—it is better than where the figure of Christ has never been known.'

This short pamphlet is aflame with joyous energy—'I know that active goodness is the most beautiful thing in the universe to me. . . . 'To me the most exciting life in the world is the life that struggles towards personal goodness, which is beauty'. It answers a much larger question than 'Is there a case for foreign missions?'

Celandine Kennington.

The Charioteer. *Hanford Henderson (Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston and New York. \$3.)*

Dr. Henderson is well known in the United States by his pioneer work in education and by his books. He was not only the founder of several successful schools, but the originator of the Holiday Camp Movement, which has become of such importance in America.

The Charioteer is his latest book, really his philosophy of life. And a very attractive personality meets us through these pages, one in whom the heritage of Greece lives as a present reality. The love, no, the innate sense of harmony which was so typical of all Greek life, is also the basis of this philosophy, a passion to make of life a beautiful, a gracious thing.

No true Greek would ever commit the dread heresy of our modern days—that of separating body, mind and self and allowing one to develop at the expense of the other. To Dr. Henderson, the body is the servant, the mind 'the beautiful tool', both directed by the charioteer, the Will. Starting from this conception of man's being, education is discussed wisely and originally as well as social life in all its aspects. The keynote of Dr. Henderson's programme of education is 'self-activity and self-control under sympathetic and intelligent direction'. The first requisite in the school room is atmosphere. It must be one that the children recognize and love, something warm, friendly, emotional and even dramatic.

But I cannot begin quoting this delightful book. I would exceed the limits of my review. Let the reader meet it for himself, this *ανθρωπος χαλος καγαθος* who lives and speaks in the *Charioteer*.

J. J. Van de Leuw.

The Junior Book Club

We should like to draw the attention of both parents and teachers to the formation of this *Club*. A panel of experts, Dr. Alington, Lady Baden-Powell, and Mr. Henshall of the *N.U.T.*, will select a *Book of the Month* suitable for children between nine and fifteen. Their guidance should be invaluable to teachers considering additions to school libraries, and to parents who wish to be sure of giving their children the best books. The scheme is likely to be very popular, as those interested may join either by the month or by the year. Further particulars are given on page vi.

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F. C. HAPPOLD, D.S.O., M.A., is Headmaster of Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury and a member of the Council of the Historical Association of Great Britain. Before his appointment as headmaster, Mr. Happold was for eight years assistant master at the Perse School, Cambridge. He was also a lecturer and examiner for degrees at Cambridge University. He is author of various books on history, including *The Adventure of Man* and *Modern Historians of the French Revolution*, and on education, on which his best known work is *The Approach to History*.

J. J. VAN DER LEEUW, LL.D., took his degree at Leyden University, but he has since given his time to the study of education and to the problems arising from the present world crisis. He has travelled and lectured on education and philosophy in many countries, including India, Java, Australia, New Zealand and the United States. He has visited schools in all the countries he has passed through and at the Nice Conference he was appointed Director of the newly-formed International Association of New Schools. He is author of *The Conquest of Illusion* and other books.

A. J. LYNCH, J.P., late head of West Green School, Tottenham, London, is now Field Secretary of the New Educational Fellowship and Secretary of the Nursery School Association of Great Britain. He is author of *Individual Work and the Dalton Plan*, *The Rise and Progress of the Dalton Plan*, etc.

Y. RI was born near Pyngyoung in Korea, educated at first in the village school and then in Japanese schools. He studied English at the Tokyo Imperial University.

MARIA B. TE WATER, who is Director of the Child Guidance Clinic at the University of Pretoria, was a prominent figure at the Nice Conference, in 1932, where she conducted a most successful Course on Parent-Child-Teacher Relationships. She is also Convener of the Consultative Committee of *Parents and Children*.

HILDA VAUGHAN, the distinguished novelist, has written *The Battle to the Weak*, *Here are Lovers*, *The Invader*, *Her Father's House*; and her last novel, *The Soldier and the Gentlewoman*, was chosen by the Book Society last May. The dramatized version of this book is being produced at the Vaudeville Theatre, London, early in April.

ESSENTIAL NEWS

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

For many years we have been dealing in these columns with the necessity for a fundamental reorganization of the curriculum to bring it into line with the needs of modern life. We are, therefore, very glad to welcome an attempt to work out a scheme which may help in the solution of this important problem and to throw open these columns to Mr. F. C. Happold, of Bishop Wordsworth's School, who here puts forward practical proposals for curriculum reconstruction which he hopes may serve as a basis for discussion and experimentation.

A CHANGING WORLD demands a changed curriculum. Indeed, for many years the curriculum has been changing. But the method of change has taken the form of adding new subjects to the old. The result has been a patchwork, and, since an attempt is now being made to teach so much, a lack of thoroughness. There is much truth in the common criticism of the business man: 'You have at school taught your boys and girls the matterings of many subjects, but they cannot add up, they cannot write grammatically, they cannot express themselves clearly'. Now yet more subjects are clamouring for inclusion, economics, civics, biology, a far greater measure of physical culture.

The time has now come when this method of continually adding to what is already there must be abandoned in favour of a deliberate overhaul and reconstruction if we are to recover the thoroughness which was the most valuable characteristic of the old classical curriculum, and at the same time to adapt our studies to modern needs.

The following scheme is put forward as basis for discussion and experiment.

Most would agree (i) that there are certain 'skills' which all must have, and in which, whatever else is done, they must be thoroughly proficient; (ii) that there is a body of general

culture which it is desirable that all, in a greater or lesser degree, should possess; (iii) that, perhaps even more important, schools must train the mind of the boy or girl so that it may function properly, and that this mental training can best be given through those 'subjects' for which he or she has a special aptitude.

The reconstructed curriculum will recognize two essential skills, in which the pupil must be thoroughly drilled and tested throughout his school career:

(i) *Expression*, i.e. the power to express one's self clearly, logically, and grammatically in speech and writing. Some formal instruction will be required, but the necessary continuous practice will be carried out through those 'subjects', the material of which at different stages lends itself best to ensure the desired result. Training in expression will cease to be the prerogative of an 'English' master.

(ii) *Number*, i.e. the amount of mathematics essential for all, comprising the chief arithmetical processes, an acquaintance with algebraic symbols and simple geometrical forms. Mathematics proper will be taught only to those who have a bias in that direction.

We shall also envisage a general cultural course, applicable to the majority, if not to all, of our pupils.

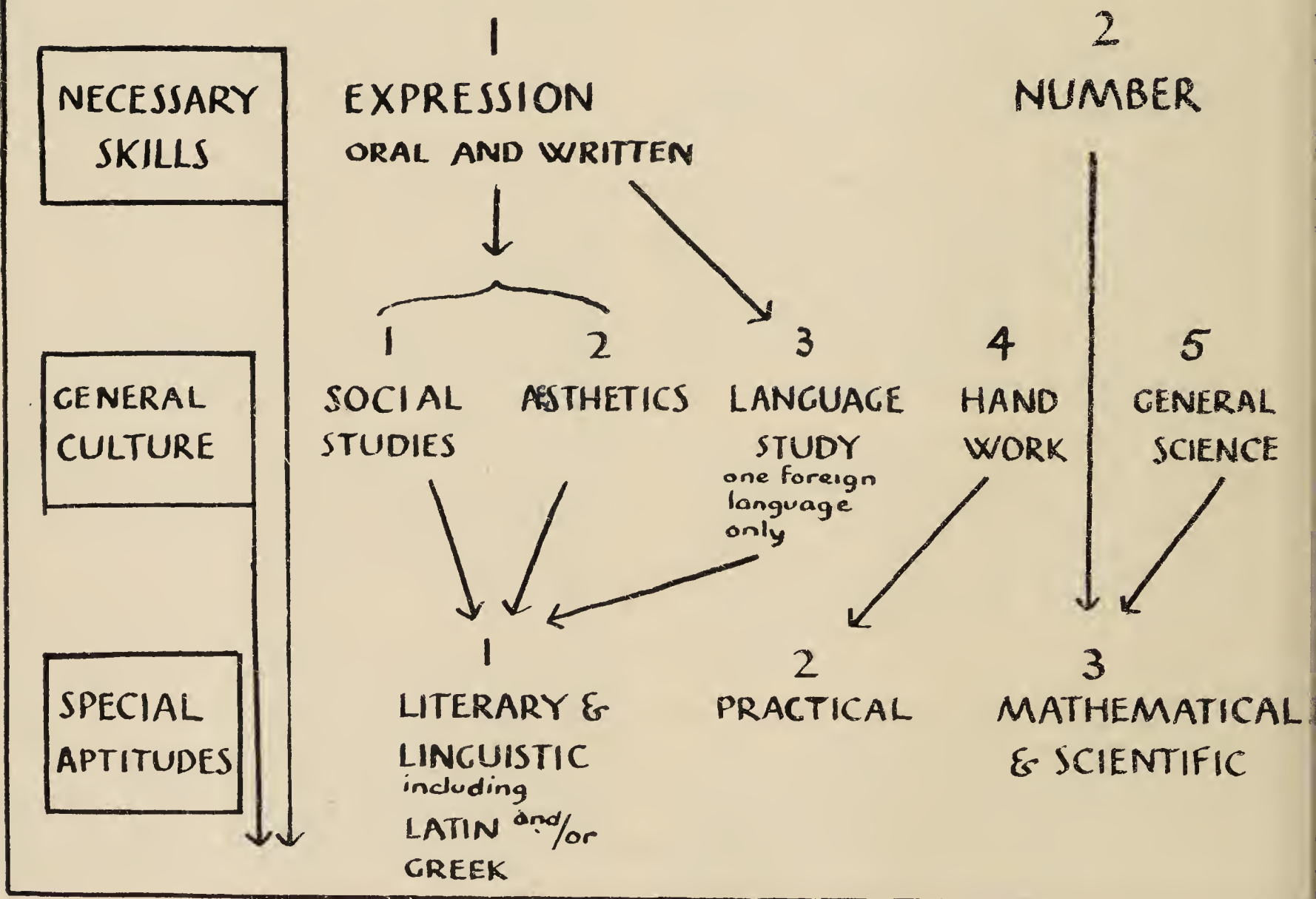
(i) *Elementary general science*. It will include that amount of biology, chemistry and physics which will enable the pupil to appreciate life processes and the scientific world in which he will have to live. It will be taught in such a way as to give him some insight into and training in scientific method. Formal science, including much of the chemistry and physics now taught in schools, will be left to be studied later by those with a scientific bent.

(ii) *Social studies*, including what is now known as English, History, Geography, Economics and Civics. So far as possible the unscientific and uneconomical 'subject' divisions will be abolished. One will take Man as the basis of study, and consider him as a whole in relation to his development (history), environment (geography), political and economic organization (economics and civics), and

thought (literature). They will aim at training the pupil to understand and live in his own age and to see his age in relation to the past and future. So far as is possible, both for economy in time and to ensure a right attitude of mind they will be taught as one 'subject'. Though division will be normally necessary in higher stages, particularly in the secondary school, since the specialist knowledge of experts will be necessary, it ought not to be impossible for masters to equip themselves to teach Social Studies as one 'subject' below the School Certificate stage. Social Studies will be the most important medium in the training in expression; some of the training, however, may be effectively given through translation from a foreign language.

What may be called *Æsthetics*, i.e. those studies which have an emotional rather than

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE CURRICULUM



an intellectual appeal, i.e. appreciation of literature, music, etc., may, at any rate in part, be combined with Social Studies.

(iii) *Language*. This will be included in the curriculum of all secondary schools, but will be omitted in some schools of the central and senior school type. The common practice of starting the study of two languages (usually French and Latin) in the first year of the secondary school course, and allowing a proportion of the pupils to drop one of them later, appears unsound and uneconomical in principle. It would be best to include only one foreign language in our course of general culture, and to study it thoroughly. Additional languages will be studied only by those who show a special aptitude for linguistic study.

(iv) *Handwork*, by which is meant work with the hands, as a corrective to our present curriculum, which tends to over-emphasize the academic. It may be drawing, painting, metal work, wood work (or combinations of these), or gardening.

It is assumed that this course of general culture will continue until the age of specialization is reached, i.e. in the secondary school until the boy enters the sixth form; but before that time he will be allowed to branch out according to his special aptitude. It will probably be found that through his special aptitudes the pupil receives the soundest and most

efficient mental training. Three divisions may be made:

(i) *Literary and linguistic*. At this stage the study of Latin and/or Greek, and perhaps a second foreign language, could be begun by those boys for whom such studies are appropriate.

(ii) *Mathematical and scientific*. The study of mathematics proper and of formal science.

(iii) *Practical*, in various forms, according to career envisaged.

Combinations of these divisions will be necessary for some boys; for instance, the boy contemplating architecture or surveying as a career would combine parts of (ii) and (iii).

If carefully worked out this reorganization ought to ensure that the boy leaves school able to express himself clearly, both in speech and writing, and to carry out the ordinary numerical processes exactly. He will, moreover, have received a far better general education than at present, for the minimum course of general culture will ensure that all have received a groundwork of essential knowledge and training, while the present system of forcing all into approximately the same mould is corrected by the opportunities given for development along the lines of special aptitude. Only experiment can, however, test the working out of this reconstruction in practice.

F. C. Happold

Social Progress Through Education—II

WILLIAM BOYD

THE first difficulty in trying to make education prepare the way for the future is that even those who want change most have no clear ideas concerning the constitution of the better society they desire. They conceal their ignorance from themselves by the assertion of general principles, as that industry should be nationalized, or everybody should be free and self-determined. But these principles do not really indicate the character of the future society; rather they indicate problems which must be solved before it can be reached. The driving force behind these vague ideas is discontent with existing institutions. The idealists desire a society that has

no marked class distinctions, a society in which there is no poverty or arbitrary inequalities, a society in which there are no coercions and restraints. For a future so ill-defined, it is difficult to see how there can be any direct educational preparation unless it takes the very dubious course of creating in the young discontent with the present.

Indoctrination

One way out of the difficulty is to entrust the direction of education to a select group of capable people, like the statesmen in Plato's Republic, or the aristocratic leaders who played so big a part in all European countries during

the nineteenth century. Such a group, having determined the best course to be pursued in social and political development, would then ensure that the ordinary members of the community, beginning with the teachers, would be indoctrinated with the sentiments and views most likely to encourage the chosen course of development. It is the method which has long been followed in the sphere of religion and morals, and it is even yet the method favoured in home education. Most people still take it for granted that a child should be trained in the way he should go, so that when he is old he will not depart from it.

Limitations of the Indoctrination Method

The indoctrination of children with good ideas has undoubtedly some part to play in moral and political education; and so far as it is possible to anticipate the direction of social progress, it may be worth guiding the thoughts and conduct of the rising generation towards it. But the method has one serious drawback—it may help people to be good, but it prevents them from being better. The weakness of this kind of education is that it works with static ideals—with habits of thought and conduct, which never get beyond being habits, and are therefore apt to render difficult the constant making and remaking of institutions and customs which progress requires.

What is needed for progressive improvement is not simply the inculcation of the right views of life, as grown-up people see them, but the development of the power to outgrow these views in the proper season. From this point of view, it is more important to enable children to take an intelligent personal share in dealing with the problems of their times when they arise, than to furnish them with the ready-made solutions of which our own generation approves.

The Direct Influence of the School on Social Change

But apart from indoctrination, is the school really so unfit to exercise a direct influence on social betterment as is commonly assumed? The answer is two-fold. In the first place, in the larger world of politics of which education is part, there is a growing conviction, in opposition to the common practice, that it is the business of government to make fundamental

changes in the social order. The altered point of view in regard to education reflects the wider concept and stands or falls with it. In the second place, while it may be admitted that it is impossible to form any definite idea of the particular institutions in which the social ideals of the present will manifest themselves in the future, there is no reason in fact for thinking that the school cannot share in the creation of these institutions. It is not the kind of social arrangements that men will have some generations hence that matters to the teacher to-day, but the soundness of the ideas that are inspiring and directing change in politics and education now.

The point to be noted is that the task which presents itself to both statesman and educator is to find a satisfactory and practical solution for the problems created by our social ideals. The significant fact is that the urge which is directing industry and politics to new social relations and devices is also evident in the schools, and is there raising problems similar to those that confront society at large. And as school life is far simpler than grown-up life, it is possible that these problems may find a solution in school life before finding one in grown-up life.

The New Education

The various movements which are comprehended under the designation of 'The New Education' are of special consequence. The New Education has two related ideas: first, to make the school a real community that gives every teacher and every scholar a completely satisfying life, and second, to do so by enabling everyone concerned to make the most of his individual talents and gifts both for the community and for himself. In pursuit of these ideals, the new educator finds himself compelled to call in question the greater part of what is done in the ordinary school. He is dissatisfied with a school curriculum containing joyless subjects remote from the concern of child or youth, and often remote from the concerns of later life. He is dissatisfied with the relation of teacher and pupil, the teacher initiating, prompting, compelling, punishing, the pupil his more or less passive subject. He is dissatisfied with the class

method, with its disregard of the far-reaching differences among the individual members of any class. He is dissatisfied with the relation of pupil and pupil, and the absence of real common interests. He is dissatisfied with the relation of headmasters to subordinate teachers, with the possibility of complete disregard of the subordinates' views and wishes. For the most part, his dissatisfactions are just the dissatisfactions of the social idealist. The idealist complains of the joylessness of men's labour, of the wrong relations between masters and men, of the indifference of the community to individuals—all complaints referring to situations that occur in some form in school life. The important difference is that school conditions are simpler and more amenable than social conditions, and children and teachers are more tractable material with which to work, with the result that, even when the ordinary school is very ordinary, it is better in many ways than the adult society, and that, at its best, it proves capable of approximating to a solution of the problems as yet unsolved in the world outside.

Constructive New Education

The important fact about the New Education, however, is not its criticism of the ordinary school, but the success of its experimental efforts to create a different kind of school. By its own principles, it is committed to the attempt to make learning so interesting to every child that the child will gladly learn. This interest is created in different ways by different educators. Some put their trust in individual methods which stimulate the child to activity by giving him a graded series of tasks just within his powers; others depend on the team spirit carrying all the individual pupils along on some scheme of collective projects. Where such methods are employed under favourable conditions, there is a remarkable release of creative energy on the part of the children. Incidentally, in the securing of personal interest, there has come into being a new relation between teacher and pupil; the teacher changes into a friendly guide who stands back and lets the children carry through their own plans with the minimum of interference. And from this change from dictatorship to friendship, comes a revolutionary change in

discipline. With the abandonment of the old kind of persuasions and restraints, rewards and punishments alike disappear, and with help from wise elders, the pupils learn to control themselves and do their work willingly, because it is their own.

A New View of Child Nature

Out of these experiments has come a new view of child nature. The old view, developed under theological auspices and seemingly confirmed by the experience of parents and teachers, regarded the child as by nature wilful and unruly, and indisposed to apply himself seriously to learning, and therefore needing to be coerced into good behaviour. The new view is that the bad child is largely the creation of his elders; that wilfulness and unruliness are the instinctive responses of a self-respecting being to wrong demands and attitudes; that laziness is the inevitable reaction to tasks imposed by another's will, tasks which the pupil might be happy to undertake if allowed to impose them on himself.

No doubt the view needs various qualifications, but stated broadly in reference to education, it amounts to this: the normal child, given proper treatment, learns well and behaves well of himself, and the child who does not do so is a case for the doctor or the psychologist.

The Social Application

The idea is obviously not limited to the school: it bears on all our difficulties—on crime, and class-hatred, and the war spirit. It is not necessary to think of these as the inevitable products of human nature, but rather as the outcome of stupid institutions which have drawn the worse rather than the better dispositions out of men by the senseless use of force. Plainly the transformation of society to make the best of human nature is a very much greater task than the transformation of the schools; but, if and when the schools are transformed, there will be good hope for the ultimate re-creation of society, for the new attitudes of children to each other and to their superiors, produced in the new schools, will not only make possible but will necessitate very different relations between man and man, and between nation and nation, than those which unhappily prevail now.

DR. C. H. BECKER

AN APPRECIATION

Ex-Minister

of

Education

for

Prussia



Vice-President

of the

World

Conferences

of the

New Education

Fellowship

TO all of us who attended the Nice Conference it came as a great shock to hear of the death of Dr. Becker, whose presence and work at that gathering has meant so much. To me, personally, it does not only mean the death of one for whose character and work I had a profound admiration, but it means the loss of a friend who, in the short time I knew him, became very dear to me.

It is rare in these days of specialized and incomplete human beings to find one who was as 'whole' as Dr. Becker. Not only did his knowledge cover an amazingly wide range, but he had that awareness of life in its unity which, alone, can show meaning in a diversity of phenomena. It is his type of humanity that is so sorely needed now that an ever-growing knowledge forces man to excessive specialization and loss of 'wholeness'.

Dr. Becker's death coincided with the victory of the Nazi movement in Germany. Unfortunately, the educational activity of the new government has, so far, been distinctly reactionary and nationalistic in the narrow sense. In Prussia, one of its first actions was to undo one of Dr. Becker's reforms and re-institute

corporal punishment as a 'healthy and manly corrective'. No doubt other even more disastrous measures will follow. Already it has been intimated that the international and pacifist point of view in education has to make place for a nationalistic and military minded outlook.

More than ever before would it have been essential to have had a man of Dr. Becker's character and abilities to protect progressive education against the onslaught of reactionary politics. For him personally, it was perhaps the happier alternative not to have lived to see so much of his educational work overthrown. But for us, for education in general and for Germany at this juncture his death is a terrible loss.

His wise and friendly personality will live in the memory of all who knew him. He leaves friends behind in the many countries he used to visit, friends to whom his presence in Berlin always meant a warm welcome and an inspiring discussion of various problems.

Our next educational Congress will miss his presence, but I am sure all of us will be aware of his memory when we meet again to continue the work for which he lived so nobly.

J. J. van der Leeuw

Adventures in Education—II

Chesterfield

A. J. LYNCH

CHESTERFIELD has been much in the public eye recently for two main reasons: first, because of the permission lately granted by the Board of Education to the Local Authority to raise the school-leaving age in the Borough to fifteen; second, because of the publication, some months ago, of the volume *Chesterfield Education: a record of four years' experiment and reconstruction*.*

The volume is a veritable mine of information. It gives a clear and concise account of the problem of reorganizing and re-conditioning schools which faced the Authority a few years ago, and the successful solution of that problem in the light of the *Hadow Report* of 1926. The volume has had, as it deserved to have, a wide circulation.

The Problem

Chesterfield, with a population of about 4,000, is a small area, but it is the largest town in the North of Derbyshire and it is the natural social and economic centre of the district. It lies on the edge of an important mining region and, though it is not far from some of the most delightful and famous of Derbyshire's spots, the Borough itself bears many of the marks of a mining centre—narrow streets, drab dwellings thrown up regardless of any sort of plan and an outer belt of moderate-size houses of a more modern type serving as a boundary between the dull interior and the more open upland. Recently, one or two housing estates have grown up outside this belt, and it was the growing educational needs of these estates, together with the crying need for better school accommodation in the older areas, that forced attention on the problem of educational reorganization. The magnitude of the problem can be better realized when it is recalled that in the Borough itself there were five condemned schools comprising ten departments, while many others were unsatisfactory. In some, two, three, and even

four classes were being taught in one large room. In most schools lighting, ventilation, and heating were alike inadequate. In none was there any provision for what is called 'practical' work on which the *Hadow Report* lays so much stress. Such was the problem confronting the Authority. It meant the replacement of condemned schools, the reconstruction of others, and the provision both of entirely new schools and of workshops attached to the old ones. Moreover, the task involved not only the provision of bricks and mortar, but also the wise planning of the type of schooling to be carried on in each building.

Following the publication of the *Hadow Report* which indicated the lines on which advance could be made, Mr. C. A. Birchenough, the Chief Inspector of Schools to the Kent County Council was, in 1927, asked by the Borough to make a survey of its needs as regards Elementary Education and to prepare a programme. At about the same time Dr. H. G. Stead was appointed Director of Education for Chesterfield. No fitter appointment could possibly have been made for, by 1928, spurred on by his own intense enthusiasm for education, Dr. Stead had got well down to the problem. It was a great adventure. By 1932, when the Borough held its famous Education Week, the work of reorganization was well-nigh completed. It was a remarkable performance, carried out in something of the crusading spirit. And it was not the less remarkable in that the whole scheme was completed during the period when Government grants were fifty per cent instead of the twenty per cent normally paid for such work.

Tackling the Problem

It will be observed that the problem was essentially different from that which confronted Barking. There the virtue of the accomplishment lay in wise planning for the future: in Chesterfield it was rather a question of dealing with the past and bringing it up to date. One of the most interesting things about the working

*To be obtained from the Education Office, Coljambe Road, Chesterfield. Price, 4s. 9d.

out of the Chesterfield scheme is the use to which large residences, standing in their own extensive grounds, just on the edge of the Borough, have been put. Highfield Hall, Hasland Hall, and Tapton House, the last-named once the residence of the great George Stephenson and the house in which he died, have been taken over and converted into schools. Internally and externally the main architectural features of these houses, together with their smooth lawns and extensive woodlands, have been retained and put at the service of elementary education. If additional accommodation has had to be provided the particular style of architecture has been maintained so that the harmony of the whole is preserved. The effect on the pupil of the interior of these buildings is one of homeliness. The effect on the visitor is one of real charm. In this type of residence, there is always plenty of space and light; in the spacious drawing-rooms a class may take its Art lesson under ideal conditions. On the age-old lawns in Summer, when the background of woodland is all that can be desired, performances of the *Midsummer's Night's Dream*, the *Taming of the Shrew*, and Milton's *Comus* are given.

But the acquisition of these houses is only part of the scheme. Several entirely new buildings

of the latest quadrangular type have been erected to meet the needs of different areas and other buildings have been added to and re-conditioned. The William Rhodes school is a fine example of the best type of modern structure.

The scheme was not complete without some provision for Nursery classes and for a school Camp. The Camp is really a farm-house about five miles away from the Borough and nine hundred feet above sea level. The farm consists of 42 acres of which ten are entirely woodland. Annually, for two weeks at a time, two hundred children are catered for at the Camp. In the case of these children the emphasis is on health rather than on education. In addition, school journeys to London and other centres are frequently organized.

So much then for the adventure as seen in the provision of school buildings. What of the internal arrangements of the schools and their administration? The furniture and equipment are well up to date. Long old-fashioned desks have vanished, and their place has been taken by suitable chairs and tables. Blackboards and other apparatus are of a modern kind. As in Barking, the colour schemes of the class rooms vary, and in the old houses now used as schools



Tapton House Central Selective School



The Old and the New Schools at Hasland

the original decoration has been preserved as far as possible.

The school administration, except for special departures in individual schools, is much like that of other enlightened areas. There is the usual division of age-groups into two or three sections according to ability, though it is not so rigid in some schools as in others. Generally speaking, the arrangements are good and the work sound.

The Film in School Life

Some of the departures, however, are of absorbing interest. Mr. W. H. George, an assistant master at the William Rhodes School, has become an acknowledged expert in the realm of films. Through his enthusiasm, and regardless of the cost to himself in time and in money, it was possible to get together the material for a film depicting the life of Chesterfield and the part played by its schools. The material was abundant, but skill and judgment were needed for its arrangement. So successfully was the work done by Mr. George and his collaborators that the film has been shown in London and elsewhere, and has attracted the attention, and gained the praise of the expert

film critic of the *Observer*. Mr. George's enthusiasm did not vanish with the completion of that film. Once a week, immediately after school is over, he exhibits sets of films twice nightly at a charge of a penny to all scholars who wish to see them. The programmes are well thought out and consist, for the most part, of educational items. Here is a sample programme: *Conquest of Natural Barriers*, *Clothes of the Empire*, *People of the Sea*, *Underground*, and to conclude, *Comedy*. The attendance at the shows is good and constant, and, since 1930, attendances have totalled 20,000. This surely is a tribute to Mr. George as well as to the quality of the films. The adventure must also be providing a great amount of valuable data with regard to the current controversy as to the value of films in education.

Arts and Crafts

Craft-work is developing in many ways. So great is the desire of the teachers in Chesterfield to know more about this aspect of their work that a course of lectures and demonstrations given last season had to be duplicated. The lecturer was Mr. O. J. Tonks, also an assistant master in the service, and one whose name is not

unknown outside Chesterfield to those interested in the teaching of Arts and Crafts.

It was most interesting to be taken slowly up the long drive to one of the schools, past the bird bath and the rabbit hutches, over the exquisite lawns, to a fully equipped pottery shed where most interesting work was being done. In another school, in what, at one time were the stables, both boys and girls were engaged in practical work of various kinds. Boys were busy with electrical apparatus and with tools and wood, while the girls were engaged in rug-making or in weaving. Elsewhere, the old kitchen of the house provided an ideal setting for domestic science. Natural science, also, was amply provided for in all the senior schools.

Music had its devoted followers. In one school it was a pleasure to listen to the beautiful singing of the selected school choir of about forty voices. The tone was excellent. The headmaster was fortunate in his musical friends for one of them, Dr. F. A. Challenor, had put to music the school song which the headmaster himself had written.

At the William Rhodes School everyone seemed agog in preparation for a concert to be given the same evening in the school hall to the

parents and other residents of the housing estate. Last Christmas a programme given in the same school hall comprised (1) Scenes from *Twelfth Night*, (2) *Shivering Shocks* (Clemence Dane), (3) *Thread o' Scarlet* (J. J. Bell), (4) *Pied Piper*. The children, of course, acted themselves, and the programme was set out in a small eight-page booklet on the front cover of which was an excellent lino-cut. The whole thing was produced on the school premises with the school typewriter and the school rotary duplicator. Each of the modern schools is supplied with this apparatus, and is thus able to produce its own magazine. Music and drama, in fact, play a large part in the lives of the scholars, but physical training also has a place. Each modern school has a well-fitted gymnasium which serves also as an assembly hall.

An Enlightened Administration

Chesterfield does not administer the secondary regulations. But there is in the Borough a well-appointed selective Central School to which pupils are transferred at eleven and remain till about sixteen. In a large measure, but not entirely, it is due to the excellence of the



One of the New Workshops in a Chesterfield School

educational provision in the Borough that, though from the ordinary Modern school pupils may withdraw at the end of the term in which they become fourteen, thirty-seven per cent of those eligible to leave return to school of their own free will till they obtain work. And it is not unlikely that this fact weighed with the Board of Education in its decision to allow Chesterfield to raise the leaving age to fifteen.

All this goes to show that the problem of elementary education in Chesterfield has been treated from a broad human standpoint. Every type of school from the Infants', with its Nursery Classes, up through the Junior and Modern, to the selective Central school has received the fullest consideration as to staff and equipment. It is notable that in the earlier days of the Borough's educational work the number of untrained, uncertificated, and supplementary teachers formed a disproportionate part of the whole. Most of these teachers were, of course, doing good work, and many of them had borne the heat and burden of the day. But teaching is becoming more and more a skilled job, and, nowadays, it requires skilled technicians. It is satisfactory to note, therefore, that during the last five years this disproportion is becoming less and that the roll of teachers has been increased. No one visiting the schools can fail to be struck by the excellent work that is being done, or to feel the fine spirit that pervades it all.

The purpose of these articles has been to draw attention to the work which is being done in the elementary schools. Barking and Chesterfield have been selected for review because they are almost completely re-organized areas, while in other respects they are typical of many other enlightened areas such as Birmingham, Kent and the West Riding. The truth is that since the elementary schools have become freed from the incubus of external examination they have also become centres of experimental and progressive work, particularly where there is an enlightened Authority, and head-teachers who rejoice in their freedom. Where the Authority and the school administrators are united, as at Chesterfield, there is no limit to what may be accomplished. The relations between all concerned in administration in the Borough appeared to be of the happiest kind, from the Director downwards. One can only offer to the

heads and their staffs one's best thanks for the opportunity of viewing in complete freedom one of the bright spots in education.

Cordial thanks are also due and hereby are tendered to the Director of Education and his Deputy, Dr. E. C. Walker, for their untiring courtesy and consideration in allowing the writer to visit the area, and assisting him in every way. Thinking over what has been accomplished in the comparatively short space of four years one cannot but feel that Chesterfield is fortunate in its Chief Education Officer. Understanding, executive ability, enthusiasm and intensity are Dr. Stead's in full measure, and it is to his clear vision that so much of the educational good in Chesterfield is due.

ERRATA

Book Review

We regret that the Review of the *Charioteer* contributed by Dr. J. J. van der Leeuw contained certain misprints, notably in the Greek quotation. The last sentence should read: 'Let the author meet him for himself this "harmonious human being" who lives and speaks in the *Charioteer*'.



Adventures in Education—Barking. II.

We would also draw our readers' attention to the fact that it is Mr. Frederick Woodhouse who is Musical Adviser in Barking, and not Mr. Chas. Wodehouse, as stated in the article. It was also incorrectly stated that 'School Clubs are beginning to be formed in one or two schools' whereas, in fact, every Senior School has its School Club. Our apologies are due to the Educational Authorities in Barking for these two errors.



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The Changing Curriculum—I

Social Studies: A Suggested Syllabus. F. C. HAPPOLD

IN the *Outlook Tower* for this month, a case has been put forward for the reconstruction of the curriculum, not by the usual process of continually adding additional subjects to what already exists but by a process of re-arrangement and combination.

The Study of Man

In no department of the curriculum is there more overlapping and need for reorganization than in that which sometimes goes under the name of 'English Subjects' and includes literature, history, geography, economics and civics. With the advent of the specialist teacher, each branch is coming more and more to be taught by a different person. The method is, in spite of its apparent surface attractiveness, unsound in principle and uneconomical in time. For each of these so-called subjects is merely a different aspect of one study, the study of Man, a study definitely demanding, if the best results are to be obtained, a unity of presentation. Once that idea of unity has been gained, it is obviously desirable in more advanced work to employ men with a more profound acquaintance with one particular branch. Thus, though it is desirable that 'subject' divisions should be maintained in the upper forms of secondary schools, it would be wise to inquire whether English subjects could not be to a great extent combined and, whenever possible, be taught by the same man throughout the Central or Senior School course and in the lower and middle forms of secondary schools.

In this combined 'subject', which may be called 'Social Studies', we shall take as our starting point Man.

We shall study him in relation to his environment (geography), his development (history), the way he is governed (civics), how he is fed and clothed (economics), how he has expressed his thoughts, his aspirations and his love of beauty (literature). We shall, moreover, use Social Studies as our chief medium in training in Expression, that is, in the art of speaking and writing, using the material which is most appropriate at different stages.

Selection of Material

In drawing up a course of Social Studies two problems must be faced, what may be called the problem of content, i.e. what we shall teach, and what may be called the problem of method, i.e. how we shall teach. Of the two, the second is perhaps the more important. Much of what a boy learns in school is necessarily forgotten. The pouring in of knowledge is a thankless and often unprofitable occupation, especially if the knowledge is useless knowledge, as much of what is commonly taught in schools is. If, however, the methods are such that the boy's mind is continually being trained so that through his studies he becomes mentally vigorous and self-reliant, able to tackle a problem for himself, to think and argue logically and clearly, to regard learning and culture as something desirable in themselves and worthy of his highest effort, then he is receiving an education which will stand him in good stead in after life. Nevertheless, though we may believe that what a boy *is* is more important than what he *knows*, we are bound to acknowledge that some knowledge is useless and barren, some useful and desirable. It is probably more desirable that the citizen of the future should know something of the system of diplomacy which led to the Great War than of the events which brought about the Wars of the Roses, of the trade routes of the modern world than of those of Venice and Genoa. Let us therefore try and discover some principles on which the content of our course of Social Studies may be built up.

The Criterion of Realism

One may say first of all that our course must give the knowledge necessary for our pupils to understand the world in which they live. That does not mean that we must confine ourselves to contemporary material. We shall best understand our own age if we can view it in the light of the past, and, moreover, by studying the whole story of Man, we shall gain a richness of vision which we could never gain if we confined our studies to our own times. Side by side with this may be read such literature in prose and

erse as will illuminate the story of Man past and present and will give the right emotional balance to studies which might otherwise be too intellectual.

The choice of material in Social Studies is so vast that a selection must be made. No two teachers will choose alike, nor would one wish to lay down any stereotyped curriculum content. But it is necessary that we should with unbiassed mind survey the content of our curriculum and should ruthlessly discard anything, however hallowed by tradition, which will not pass the test of realism. Thus, bearing these principles in mind, the following specimen curriculum might be drawn up.

The First Year

In the first year we shall study world history in outline in order to get that bird's-eye view which will form the basis of future studies. Side by side with the study of world history, a general survey of world geography will be undertaken. With prehistory we shall make some study of astronomy and geology; the study of Egypt and Babylon suggests the influence of geographical environment on Man's history; Persia and India suggest race movements; the Age of Discovery will bring in America and Australia. The method of work will compel much map drawing and at the end of the year the pupil ought to be familiar with the main features of the earth's surface and have gained an elementary knowledge of regional geography. At the end of the course, history, geography and economics will be combined in the study of inventions, the world's supply of food, etc., trade routes and so on. The world's great stories are appropriate at this stage, the legends of Greece and Rome, of India and China, Norse sagas and mediæval romances of Charlemagne and Arthur, while portions of Marco Polo's Travels or Hakluyt's Voyages may be read, and also ballads, folksongs and the simpler lyrics.

The Second Year

In the second year we might study our own land and race, not in isolation but bound up with its neighbouring Europe and its dominions overseas. To attempt to study the whole of English history in one year is obviously impossible except in outline and a continual

study of outlines is undesirable. Would it be considered too heretical to suggest that much of the English History now studied may be left out? One could choose certain important epochs for more careful examination, connecting up these epochs by short summaries. Again, side by side with the study of our people must go the study of the surface of our land, commencing with one's own locality, with the appropriate map-making and field work, and expanding from our country to Europe and the Empire. A choice will be made of some of the literature of our own country appropriate to the pupil's age. One might choose that which is most typically English, such works as *Puck of Pook's Hill*, *A Shepherd's Life* and *Pickwick Papers*.

The Third Year

With the groundwork laid in the first two years, one may choose for the third year material which will definitely illuminate our own age, the study of the modern world in relation to its historical, geographical, economic and institutional background called in U.S.A., Social Science.

Consideration of such manifestations of modern life as advertisements, the cinema and the Press would lead to an examination of what one means by taste and culture and so on to the appreciation of literature and the technique of prose and verse.

Such a syllabus, as has been said, is merely intended to be suggestive; each one would work out his own according to his peculiar needs and inclinations. Provided the material is chosen in the spirit of realism one would be loath to commend one syllabus rather than another. Nor does it claim to be exhaustive; it is merely intended to indicate the general scope of the work which might be attempted. Time will have to be given to some formal instruction and teaching in the 'skill' of Expression but it is undesirable that this should be confined to one branch of social studies only. While a place will be found for 'free composition', much practice in speaking and writing may be obtained through the great mass of material used in the course.

Having, at any rate provisionally, decided on the general lines of our syllabus, we may next inquire as to the methods through which this syllabus may be worked out.

Korean Schooldays

Y. RI

MY education began in a village school in a certain remote province in the northern part of Korea. The school was one of the old-fashioned private schools (*shōbo*) based on the traditional system of primary education in Korea, and was managed by parents from two neighbouring villages. An old scholar of Chinese classics was the only master and there were forty or fifty boys who were all taught in one large room, regardless of the disparity in their ages and knowledge. As for the curriculum of the school, Chinese classics was the sole important course of study. The learning of Korean was never regarded as a regular lesson, and it was only taught casually.

The Village School

As Chinese had been adopted as the official written language at an early date in Korea, the Chinese classical style had been the only means of written communication for many centuries. It was not that we had no native script—the *unmun* was invented as early as the middle of the fifteenth century, when Korean culture was at its height,—but our forefathers regarded it as a vulgar script only fit for women. They always wrote everything serious, works of history and literature, as well as business letters and I.O.U.'s in their favourite old Chinese classical style. Even now, many of the old men cannot read their native script although they can write and read Chinese easily, while there are a good many women who are well versed in *unmun* in spite of their ignorance of Chinese characters. Indeed, I myself was initiated into the rudiments of the native script by an old aunt, but I still communicate with my father in Chinese, for he is very much annoyed when I write in Korean in order to avoid the stereotyped monotonously long-winded beginning of Chinese letters, running something like this: 'Time is summer, and at this season of unusual and extravagant heat, I wish most humbly and heartily that your honourable person may be at peace, perfect and profound, and that all the family, too, may enjoy their health under you . . . ' etc.

If the study of our mother tongue was neglected, how much more were history, geography and arithmetic! The master was rather a rare man and had some knowledge of these subjects, and it was a source of pride to us that we had such a learned master, for our village school was the only one in the neighbourhood where these subjects were taught at all. But unfortunately, the history and geography we were taught were not those of Korea, but of China thousands of years ago. As for such lessons as music, drawing

and gymnastics, I must confess that I never dreamed of their existence in my early school days.

It was our daily task to read Chinese character and to practice Chinese brushmanship from dawn to dusky eve, broken only by meal times and by occasional hours of play which were sometimes given voluntarily by the master, but more often obtained by teasing. This monotonous routine went on from week to week without the slightest change. Besides this, there was a night class during the autumn and winter months, and we were forced to read and write Chinese characters over and over again under the vigilant superintendence of the master. This was supposed to be an expression of our sincere love for the venerable Chinese classics but I think it must have been a good way for our parents to get rid of their boisterous children.

My father's original intention in letting me go to the village school was to equip me with a practical knowledge of Chinese characters which would enable me to read and write just such simple things as letters and accounts. But my industriousness and the rapid progress I made so pleased him that when I began to learn one of the sacred Four Books which were regarded as the final course of study in a village school he began to encourage me to go further.

'Study hard', he said. 'Study with a view to going up to Seoul some day and sitting for the *kwangju*'



In Kyobashishowa Elementary School in Tokyo



A Music Lesson in the Tamagawa-Juku School, Japan

state examination). It was your grandfather's ambition to pass that examination. He attempted it many times, walking each time all of the long distance, five hundred and fifty *li*, to Seoul. He was a great scholar, and ought to have passed it, but fortune was not with him and he was not successful after all.'

I was too young to know myself what sort of thing this *kwagö* was, but seeing my father so proud, I could not but be happy and continued to study my Chinese classics as hard as ever.

Japanese versus Chinese

But the national tragedy of Korea's annexation by Japan, which had occurred some years before, was beginning to have its effect on the daily life of the village people. They began to think carefully of future education, for the wisdom of continuing to teach Chinese classics in the village school was very doubtful. Properly speaking, they ought to have thought of this before, because the treaty of annexation was signed about the time I was born, but being such an out-of-the-way small village, very distant from the capital, the event had remained merely a vague rumour for many years.

My father was no exception. If he had had the slightest interest in these things, he would never have dreamed that I might sit for the *kwagö* when I grew up. For obviously, in view of the political situation in Seoul at that time, such a trifle as the old state examination must long have been discontinued. But I shall always remember his ill-humour when he finally left me in charge of an acquaintance in the village to be taught Japanese. Though I was only in my early teens, I believe I shared something of his inexpressible sadness

at the abandonment of the venerable Chinese classics which had been cultivated of old by our forefathers, in favour of the strange *hatara matara* (hotch-potch) as the village people contemptuously called Japanese.

Yet it was my good fortune to be under a man who had a good knowledge of Japanese. He was, in fact, a pioneer: leaving the village school, he had gone to Seoul to study Chinese, but had changed his mind and gone over to Tokyo soon after the annexation. In a sense, he was the person responsible for an important turning point in my career, for it was on his advice that my father made up his mind to teach me Japanese, and it was he who persuaded my father to send me to a primary school in Chinnampo, a port town about twenty miles away from the village.

A Japanese School

My new school was called *Futsu Gakko* (Common School), and it was one of those managed by the Government-General of Chosen (Korea) on western lines. Compared with the village school, the building was imposing and splendid, and to my great surprise, there were several hundred pupils under a number of teachers, of whom the headmaster and three or four others were Japanese. As for the curriculum, every sort of modern subject was taught, including music, drawing, and gymnastics, not to speak of history, geography and arithmetic. Classes were not held continuously, but broken up by a ten minutes' recess at the end of every hour, and the lessons taught each day were arranged carefully so as not to bore the pupils by their monotony. Yet this school had one feature in common with my village school—that was the neglect of Korean lessons. Chinese classics no longer reigned as a sovereign, but Japanese was enthroned in its place.

I was admitted to the third year class after an examination in reading and translating simple Japanese sentences, and in the course of a few months I settled down to my new life. My father, however, was indifferent to my progress in Japanese, and never gave me a word of encouragement, but it was a change to learn a new language after so many years at the Chinese classics, which I could not really understand. So I began to work at Japanese with enthusiasm.

Two years later, graduating from the school as one of the most successful pupils, I entered the *Koto Futsu Gakko* (Higher Common School) in Pyngyoung. As the name shows, the *Koto Futsu Gakko* is of the same lineage as the *Futsu Gakko*, and is the Korean equivalent of the Japanese Middle School. Algebra and geometry are taught here instead of arithmetic, and such subjects as physics, chemistry and natural history are added to the

curriculum as the year advances. English was one of the new lessons, but being optional it was only begun in the second year and was never regarded as a serious study. Looking back, I feel most grateful to those teachers who first taught me English, although their own knowledge of the language was so limited that they were often puzzled by the school textbooks while their pronunciation was really horrible.

Japanese continued to be regarded as the most important subject and in the course of four or five years, we became, willingly or not, fairly expert in reading and writing everyday Japanese, and most of the graduates went into the world as teachers, or petty officials in the government services. I had no definite object in mind when I entered the school, and I might have become a teacher, or more probably a dutiful son and returned home to help my father. But fortunately, the *Koto Futsu Gakko* was formally recognized as the equivalent of the Japanese Middle School, and the graduates were qualified to be admitted to the Higher Schools in Japan. Consequently, with my father's reluctant consent, I sat for the entrance examination and was admitted to the *Daisan Koto Gakko* (Third High School) in Kyoto.

Life at a Japanese High School

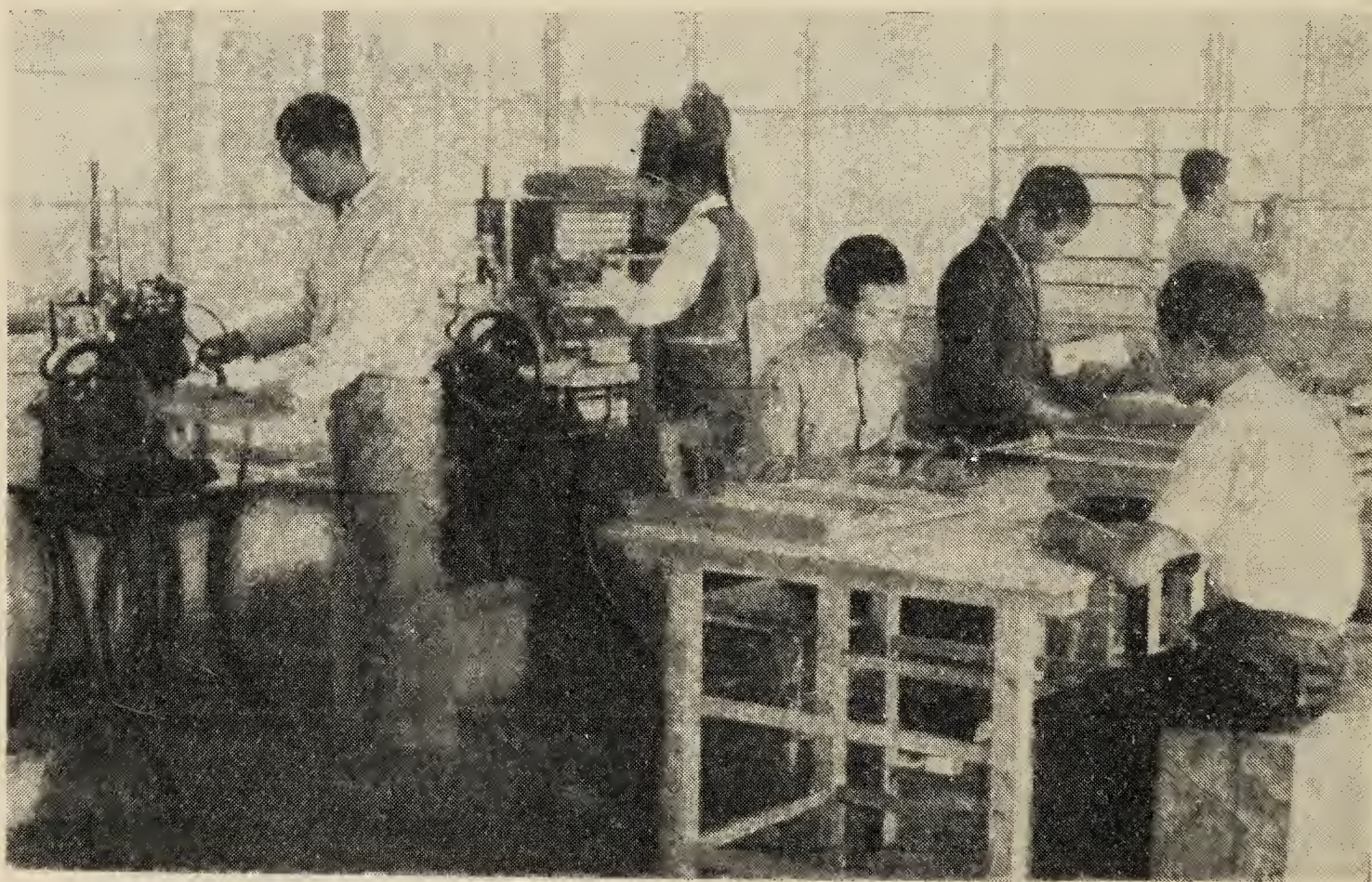
High School, lying between the Middle School, where students must work hard for their entrance examinations, and the University, is much coveted by most Middle School boys, and remembered with the greatest affection by those fortunate enough to

enjoy it. Having once entered the school, the students are as free as air; they have nothing to worry about and, as symbolized by their shabby coats and tattered caps, they lead a life which is gay and boisterous and often reckless and hazardous.

As the learning of one or two foreign languages is their chief work during the three years, there is plenty of opportunity for the pupils to get into touch with foreign literature. In short, the time they spend there is a sort of golden age of romanticism in the life of the Japanese students.

It goes without saying that I enjoyed these years and perhaps, as a Korean, I appreciated them doubly. For on coming to a Japanese school, I felt extraordinarily free, as if I had suddenly been released from all the bondage and fetters of the past. My schooldays in my own country were far from being pleasant, and the latter half of my Middle School days was, in fact, an ordeal. I had begun to realize the place and the fate of the Koreans as well as the true nature of the education I was undergoing. I found, to my disappointment, that the Japanese I had been learning so gaily was, after all, only a burden imposed on my people. Being a colonial education, its first purpose was to make us tame Koreans, or Korean-Japanese, if I may use such a term, and to impart to us the mechanical knowledge with which we might assist the Japanese in carrying out their colonial policy.

In a Japanese School, however, away from my own country, I was saved from the pain of seeing her humiliation. I might, I thought, forget it for a while. The atmosphere of my new surroundings, too, was pleasant. I found the native Japanese so very



The Industrial Department of the Tamagawa-Juku School, Japan

different from those emigrated Japanese that they might have come from another stock, while the education given in the High School was truly liberal, concerned more with character building than with the mere imparting of practical knowledge.

Learning Languages

As I have said, the learning of one or two European languages was the chief and most important work in Japanese High School, and I chose English as my first, and German as my subsidiary, language. And English came to occupy the linguistic throne occupied first by the Chinese classics and then by Japanese, I had to undergo the tyranny of yet another foreign language.

There was, however, a memorable episode in connection with my study of English, which I cannot help recalling—it was my discovery of Pater. In this sense, Pater was responsible not only for my serious study of English, but also for my choice of a career, and I decided to choose English as my subject at the University.

The Influence of Pater

It was through *The Renaissance* that I first became acquainted with Pater. As it was only my first year at school, the book was by no means easy. I laboriously tackled one chapter after another with the constant help of dictionaries and notes, but I confess I could not get his meaning, and had to content myself with picking out such new words and phrases as I could. But, when I reached the conclusion, I was suddenly able to understand it clearly and thoroughly. It was as if a candle had been lit in a dark room, and from that moment a new world opened out before me. I shall never forget the excitement with which I read the conclusion in the school library. I spent the rest of my High School days thinking and feeling with Pater, and wandering about in this new world, reading English essays and poetry, Shelley and Lamb being my favourites, until at the end of those three happy years, I entered the English Literature Department of the Tokyo Imperial University, with the intention of striking still further into the realm of imaginative literature.

International Notes

FELLOWSHIP NEWS

Australia

Mr. J. Darling, Headmaster of the Geelong Church of England Grammar School, speaking at the recent Australian Education Conference said:- 'Any education which does not train children to be citizens of the world rather than of any one nation or empire is retrograde and dangerous It is better to be loyal to the Empire than to Australia, and better still to think of the needs of the world, and only of the Empire as serving its purpose in the world.'



Belgium

Mlle. A. Hamaide has been appointed President of the Belgian Section of the *New Education Fellowship* to fill the vacancy created by the death of Dr. Decroly. She has also been elected a member of the Executive Board of *The Fellowship*.



Canada

A very successful conference of farm people who met to consider the art of community living was held at Pickering College, Newmarket. The Headmaster, Mr. McCulley, who is a member of *The New Education Fellowship* was responsible for the idea and planned the programme which gave a very comprehensive course on 'Citizenship' in three days' intensive study.

Great Britain

At *The New Education Fellowship* teas during March short talks were given by the following: Miss Chambers of Maltman's Green, on '*Some Trends of Education in Modern English Schools*', Mrs. F. H. Dodd, of The Red House, on '*Childhood Difficulties*' Miss Dorothy Moulton (Mrs. Robert Mayer) on '*Music and Children*'. The hostesses were Mrs. H. A. Koelsch, Mrs. F. H. Dodd, Mrs. R. Murray. Tea is served every Friday from 4.30 to 6 p.m. at 29, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1. A short talk is followed by informal discussion, and members, their friends and all who are interested are welcome.

Mr. Rawson, Co-Director of *The New Education Fellowship*, has just returned from a visit to Vienna, where he has been making preliminary investigations regarding the 1935 Conference. En route, he has been able to see *N.E.F.* friends in Dresden, Brno and Brussels.

Mr. Lynch, the Field Secretary of *The N.E.F.* had a most successful tour in February. In Manchester, he spoke at the Mount School, Kersal, and at the Grove School, Bowden, and as a result of the latter meeting, the school itself decided to become a member.

On February 6th Mr. Lynch addressed a meeting organized by students in Dundee. From there he went to Edinburgh and spoke at one of the largest meetings recently organized by the Scottish Section of *The Fellowship*. On the 8th he was in Dunfermline and spoke at the High School, and he then went on to Kirkcaldy and Elgin where he also had excellent meetings.

Parents in Leeds

We have received an S.O.S. from a parent in Leeds in connection with the alleged absence of any progressive schools in that city. Are any other parents finding it equally difficult to secure progressive education for their children, and would they be ready to consider the starting of a small school? If so, perhaps they would kindly communicate with the Secretary, *The New Education Fellowship*, 29, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

India

We are glad to learn that Mr. P. A. Inamdar, a member of *The New Education Fellowship*, has recently been appointed Director of Public Instruction in Idar State. He will continue as President of the *Aundh State Teachers' Association*, a position he has held for some time. The best wishes of *The Fellowship* will go with Mr. Inamdar in his new work.

South Africa

The latest news from the Editor, who is at present in South Africa, gives very cheering accounts of the *New Education Fellowship* meetings she has addressed at Stellenbosch, Paarl, and Worcester.

Swedish Section

A very successful annual meeting of the Swedish Section was held on February 5th. An excellent lecture was given by Rektor Grimlund dealing with the new proposals for the revision of the curriculum and teaching methods. The two most important Stockholm papers reported the lecture very fully.

The meeting was held in conjunction with the *Pedagogical Society* and will definitely lead to closer co-operation between the two organizations in future.

OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

The Le Play Society

The tradition of Le Play, which inspires the work of the Society bearing that name and working towards a diffusion of knowledge of the real resources of human races, offers in its Easter and Summer Programme an opportunity for studies in Morocco, Les Eyzies, Canterbury, Roumania, Iceland. This is an excellent opportunity for the student of geography and sociology. Full particulars may be obtained from Miss Margaret Tatton, F.R.G.S., 56, Gower Street, London, W.C.1.

The Teachers' Anti-War Movement

This movement began in June and has developed rapidly. It has brought together teachers, including inspectors, head teachers, assistants and students, and

is run on the informal lines of an open committee which meets monthly at 29, Gordon Square, London. An appeal is made to all those who have the cause of peace at heart to spare a part of their leisure for this active work.

Switzerland

We learn with interest of the formation of a *Swiss Montessori Society*, which is affiliated to the *International Association*. The Chairman is Dr. Jean Piaget, of the University of Geneva. The Swiss Group has for its object the promotion of new Montessori Schools and the spread of Montessori educational principles throughout Switzerland. International Montessori courses will also be organized for the training of Montessori teachers, and it is hoped that international Montessori Congresses will be held in Switzerland.

An International School Hostel

Het Maarten Maartens Huis, which lies on the hills which line the Rhine into the heart of Holland is now to be used as an International School Hostel for meetings of secondary school children of different nationalities during the summer. Small groups of children between 15 and 19 from several countries (in charge of their own teachers) can there meet Dutch children. The object is to form a community in which the study of languages, discussions, in and out door duties, games and sight-seeing will help the children to mix freely with foreigners and learn to understand one another's life. Programmes will be specially arranged to meet the needs of each group and the fees will be kept as low as possible, (probably about 3s. a head). The two leading associations of secondary school teachers in Holland are in sympathy with this scheme, and an influential committee has been formed. The Hon. Secretary, Beatrix Maartens De Zonheuvel, Doorn, is anxious to get into touch with all who are interested, and full details may be obtained from her.

Scholarships in Dalcroze Eurhythmics.

On another page will be found an advertisement of the London School of Dalcroze Eurhythmics drawing attention to one full Scholarship and two half Scholarships that are being offered in the Training Department. This is an opportunity to obtain free training, or training at half fees, for girls with musical gifts who desire an interesting career which gives scope for creative and imaginative ability.

The School also holds classes in single subjects for those not wishing to take a full course.

Full particulars may be obtained from the Secretary, London School of Dalcroze Eurhythmics, 23, Store Street, London, W.C.1.

Nursery School Association

The report of the Consultative Committee of the Education of the Child, the publication of which cannot be long delayed, is being eagerly looked for. That its recommendations will be can only be conjectured. But the *Nursery School Association* feels that at the present juncture it is important to concentrate its attention on the child between two and three years of age.

It is therefore suggested that the Summer meeting

of the *Association* should this year take the form of a Refresher Course for its members. Two subjects, Psychology (with special reference to the two-year-olds) and Dietetics, will take precedence in the course. It is hoped to secure the services of well-known experts in these subjects. Doubtless many members of the Association will welcome the opportunity of taking part in the course. The date proposed is the week-end June 30th-July 3rd, and the place, Digs-well Park, Welwyn Garden City. Details as to programme and cost will be published later.

Bookshelf

Our Children. Dorothy Canfield Fisher. Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg. (Viking Press, N.Y. \$2.75.) Parents are demanding more and more information and understanding the development, both physiological and psychological, of their children. No longer does 'mother wit' suffice. Having had demonstrated the advantages of scientific knowledge in regard to feeding and physical care of infants, as evidenced by the better health and lower infant mortality rate, parents are demanding more scientific data as to the mental hygiene of the child, so as to prevent the development of psychoneurotic conditions and delinquency, which are now generally recognized as being due to wrong upbringing in the early years of life.

The older repressive measures are passing away and we now recognize that 'original sin' may be a good, and not a bad, tendency in a child, when properly directed.

In *Our Children*, under the editorship of Dorothy Canfield Fisher and Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg, the *American Child Study Association* has produced a volume which emphasises the truth of this principle.

Written by twenty-five specialists in child development, the book has grown out of the questions asked by parents who come to the *Association* for help and guidance in the training of their children.

This work represents a wide field of present-day knowledge and opinion and is both balanced, practical and full of commonsense. The child has been dealt with from every point of view, from the chemistry of growth, the question of sex education, to the child at school and in the outside world.

Nothing that may be helpful to a better understanding of our children has been omitted. Take, for instance, the question of anger and fear in children. So many parents feel that these tendencies are harmful and must be suppressed; but Dr. Blatz shows them to be assets in the development of character if properly understood, made use of, and directed. We all admire chivalry and yet chivalry is really due to the magnanimity impulse, directed to a good and useful purpose. 'Understand the child and the problem of guidance will largely solve itself.'

Many parents feel that there are great difficulties with regard to sex education in children. They question the desirability of the knowledge with all its emotional portents. In the chapter 'What is Sex Education?', we find a balanced answer to all our questionings and difficulties, as in the common-sense statement: 'When the child asks about babies, the question has nothing to do with sex. It has no sex implication whatsoever'. Lies, whisperings and embarrassment on the part of the parents, however, produce the very emotional situations we wish to avoid.

So throughout the book one finds practical answers to parents' many difficulties. With regard to the chapter on 'Discipline', however, we find the answers weak and inconclusive. Discipline is, after all, positive, not merely inhibition or punishment for wrong; discipline means teaching, and if we believe in training at all, such training must be positive guidance and direction of a child's impulses. This chapter, telling us what we should avoid in the way of discipline, is not very helpful in guiding us to the positive aspect of discipline, which we, as parents, need to understand.

With regard to thumb-sucking, it is pointed out, as we think quite rightly, that in its simple form it is of physiological value; but the author of 'Laws to Be Broken' does not sufficiently differentiate between the natural and the pathological forms of thumb-sucking. If a child sucks its thumbs as a solace for feeling left out and unloved by its mother, the thumb-sucking is a neurotic reaction, and the cause must be dealt with. We also part company with the author for referring to 'that possibly worthy object, the pacifier'. There is all the difference in the world between allowing the child to suck a natural object and giving it some external object in the shape of a 'dummy'. Besides, why does the baby need pacifying? It is because something is wrong, and if something is wrong, it should be put right. It is not enough merely to pacify the baby! But such minor criticisms should not deter any of us from buying a book which is certainly one of the most valuable we have seen on the important subject of child development.

Grace Calver

Occupational Misfits. *Sheila Bevington.* (Geo. Allen and Unwin. 6s.)

This book describes a sociological study of 400 lads (aged 16-18) resident in a north London district, half of whom were in steady employment while the other half were unemployed. The results of the study are depressing. Economic and temperamental factors loom large on the horizon, here as elsewhere, while the fact that little or no vocational guidance is given to these lads only completes the already depressing picture. Another of our "dark places" is revealed.

The study was carried out, we are told, under the auspices of the *National Institute of Industrial Psychology*. May we hope that this *Institute* is enabled to further the excellent remedies suggested by Miss Bevington? I think so, granted another economic regime.

J. H. Burns

Sex Education in Schools. *Tucker and Pout.* (Howe. 3s. 6d.)

This book gives a detailed account of a successful experiment in the beginnings of sex education carried out by the authors, at the request of parents and teachers, in a number of Elementary Schools in Wales. It describes the approach towards parents and teachers, contains three—oh, why only three?—hygiene talks given to the children, and assesses the on-the-whole satisfactory results.

Time and time again, the authors, like many of their co-believers, are confronted by the facts that (1) the parents are unable or unwilling to lead up to the subject and give the necessary instruction, and (2) our attitude to sex is still very very unhealthy. The authors refer often to this matter of attitude. Sex, it seems, requires special treatment because, in part at least, it has been and still is being specially neglected or distorted. This book helps towards the removal of this unhealthy attitude.

J. H. Burns

The Waiting City. *Paris 1782-88. Helen Simpson.* (Harrap. 12s. 6d.)

This is an abridgement of Louis-Sebastien Mercier's '*Le Tableau de Paris*', translated from the French and edited with a preface and notes by Miss Helen Simpson. As a translation, it is remarkable for its felicity; delightful for its ease and wit. The passages Miss Simpson has chosen, together with the illuminating notes linking French fashions and customs with their English contemporaries, give a living picture of eighteenth century Paris mincing towards the Revolution. Fashions, foibles, all the minor oppressions which so chafed Mercier, are described in *The Waiting City*—and the book should prove invaluable to all who are teaching, studying, or interested in this period in the history of France.

Jane Oliver

Recent Textbooks

HISTORY

Days of Empire. *F. W. Tickner.* (University of London Press. 3s.)

This is the last volume of the Headway Histories which describes the history of Britain and the Empire in relation to Europe and the rest of the world.

A Pre-History Reader. *T. F. G. Dexter.* (World of Youth Library. Watts & Co. 1s. 6d.)

History 'from things'—an interesting account of the creation of our civilization.

DRAMA

Twenty-four Lessons in Elocution. *James Bernard.* (Pitman. 5s.)

A valuable text-book for teachers.

The Goose and the Gooseberry. *Edith Elias.* (Harrap. 3s. 6d.)

A play for children of eight and over. It shows how a seemingly trivial thing may cause an upheaval. It is extremely simple to produce.

SCIENCE

'Science in Everyday Life' Series. (Pitman. 2s. 6d. each.)

This series is designed to make science attractive to young pupils.

Science and Life. *Andrade & Huxley.* (Basil Blackwood. 2s. 3d.)

Book II of 'An Introduction to Science'. This series has been planned to stimulate interest in science and to present it as a living body of knowledge.

Everyday Science. *Books I and II. H. E. Bean.* (University of London Press. 2s. 3d.)

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

A Monthly Magazine for Parents and Teachers

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

IT was decided at the Nice Conference of the *New Education Fellowship* (1932) that the value of the next Conference would be greatly enhanced if the way were prepared by means of a series of regional conferences, to be held throughout the world, in Scotland for the British peoples, Spain for the Latin peoples, Central Europe for the German-speaking peoples, North America for Americans and Canadians, in Scandinavia, in the East and in South Africa.

The Task of the N.E.F. All these interim conferences will be supplied with certain study material provided by the permanent international Commissions of the N.E.F. which, with a permanent secretary at London headquarters, are collecting material and suggesting lines of experiment and research upon such vital problems as the training of teachers, the reconstruction of the curriculum and the reform of examinations.* The material supplied will be based upon the findings of the Nice Conference and will suggest avenues of approach to the gigantic task which lies before the modern educator of endeavouring to reconstruct society through the medium of education.

Regional Conferences While certain basic principles are common to education in all parts of the world, education must in a certain sense always be a national or a regional problem. The educative process must always start with the known, the personal, the local and the national situation; and all educational problems depend of necessity upon the cultural and racial characteristics of each nation or

region. Each regional conference will, therefore, endeavour in the first instance to meet the needs of that particular part of the world in which it is held.

They will all have a similarity of general pattern in that each will consider the training of the whole child. They will be similar in that they will consider not only the changes in education made necessary by the rapid changes in the world and in society, but also the evolving of a better social organization through education. Also it is hoped that, since these regional conferences are held under the ægis of the *New Education Fellowship*, they will be imbued with a common spirit.

The regional conferences should thus be free from political and sectarian bias, bringing men and women together because of their love for children, and their desire to give the children of their country the fullest possible opportunity of developing the potentialities that lie within them and of becoming happy, well-adjusted human beings and good citizens.

At these conferences people will not only be engaged in discussing the problems which emerged at the Nice Conference and in digesting the material put forward by the various Commissions, but also in preparing for the World Conference of 1935. To this, various nations and regions will send delegates who will contribute the considered opinion of leading educationists in their region. This preparation will enable them to take home a richer harvest.

Preparing for the South African Conference

The regional conferences will differ from each other in organization and in the specific national problems that will be discussed, but we think it might be of

*See issue of November, 1932. *Notes on the Work of the Commissions.*

interest to our readers in various parts of the world to know something of the preliminary work that is being done in organizing the South African Conference. While as yet, owing to the size of the country, there is no national section of the *Fellowship* in South Africa, we are fortunate in having a representative in Dr. E. G. Malherbe, Director of the National Bureau of Education in the Education Department of the Union of South Africa. We have also groups of the *Fellowship* in several of the larger South African centres.

As our international representative in South Africa, Dr. Malherbe has taken the initiative in organizing there a regional conference for 1934, and he has already been able to enlist the co-operation of the Union Government. The Minister of Education has offered the Bureau as a free secretariat and is helping us to secure reduced railway fares and similar advantages. The four Directors of Education in the Cape, Natal, Transvaal and Orange Free State provinces have agreed to interest teachers in the conference through their inspectorate. The interest of the Universities has also been enlisted, and the Principals of the Universities of Cape Town and the Witwatersrand have offered the University buildings and hostels for the conference during the July vacation of 1934. The teachers' organizations are co-operating by means of liberal grants and by urging their members to register, as are also the women's organizations, the Agricultural Union, the medical profession, Rotary Clubs, bodies representing employers, bodies interested in social welfare work and the Church and so on. Altogether about thirty associations have been invited to co-operate. A guaranteed fund of £2,000 to £3,000 is to be raised between these various bodies and they have all promised to help with the publicity and in other ways.

Theme of the Conference The main theme of the South African conference will be the problem of adjusting education to meet the rapidly changing social and economic demands of the world, with special reference to South African conditions. Under this, the following sections are contemplated:

(a) The greater individualization of *methods* of teaching and school organization. The

problem is how shall we cultivate that power of adaptive intelligence in our children so that they can effectively meet the demands of a life which we can but dimly foresee.

(b) Problems of the curriculum and of how to alleviate the pressure of examinations. The place of arts and crafts, the demands of vocational training and vocational guidance will be dealt with under this section. South Africa has hitherto neglected the claims of the æsthetic needs of the child and the stimulation of creative self-expression.

(c) The training of teachers.

(d) Social adjustment—one of the main problems in South Africa to-day. It is realized that the best educational work can be done in the home and in the family and that the most progressive type of social work is the rehabilitation of the family by means of re-education.

The Spirit of Co-operation It is here that all those organizations interested in family life can, in co-operation with the teachers, accomplish much. Such organizations are: The Vroue Federasie (Transvaal), Oranje Vroue Vereniging (O.F.S.), Afrikaanse Christelike Vroue Vereniging (Cape), Natalse Christelike Vroue Vereniging (Natal), the Women's Section of the Agricultural Union of South Africa, the National Council for Child Welfare, and Parents' Associations. A very important development in South Africa is the formation of well-organized women's associations in the four provinces of the Union. These draw together the most intelligent and socially-minded women in the community, and they work for the interests of women and children, co-operating with other agencies in administering social relief.

(e) African Section. On this section, which will deal with the problems of native, coloured and Indian education, we have invited the colonies south of the Congo to co-operate. We hope to get here the help of anthropologists and educators experienced in native education.

This Conference is not a government undertaking. All these various organizations are coming in under a neutral organization, the *New Education Fellowship*, whose main function is to bring people together so that they may pool experiences and thresh out common

problems. This undertaking is all the more interesting since South Africa is a country simply bristling with problems. To outsiders probably the most interesting of these is the relationship between black and white races, but there are also national and political cleavages between the English and Afrikaans-

speaking sections, and, to a smaller extent, sectarian barriers, not to speak of inter-provincial jealousies which affect all political and educational issues. The spirit of co-operation evinced towards the 1934 Conference is therefore a most hopeful and encouraging sign.

Reports—*The Break With Tradition*

With an Introduction by B. CHAMBERS

THE need for closer co-operation between home and school is undisputed; and in the majority of our progressive schools, this co-operation is being achieved. In many, there are frequent opportunities for parents to meet teachers and discuss the possibilities of their children. Yet it is still generally felt that the school is expected to assess the child's progress from time to time, and that this periodic assessment should take the form of a report. A number of progressive schools have kindly contributed particulars of, and comments on, the particular form of report they favour, and in reading through the various forms, I have been struck both by the wide divergence in the type of record used, and by the similarity in the aims of those who have devised them. All are agreed that the old type of report is valueless; but while some are prepared to abandon reports entirely, the majority make use of some kind of formal record and many attempt to give a detailed analysis of the child's physical, mental and moral development.

Now I remember hearing a lecturer, commenting on a well-known playwright, say that he 'spent his time sticking pins into pigs to make them squeal'; he then compared him with a second playwright, who saw what the first saw but who humbly suggested that the pig's voice might be trained to be a pleasing one, that the pig's greed might be put into better channels and the pig's life should be made happy and more useful.

The old and the new type of report remind me very much of this. The old type of report was a definite 'pin-sticking'. Some of the new types of report stand in danger of being too high-brow and helpful. Candidly, I am saddened as much by these new ones as by the old

ones. I think we are running a grave risk of hindering natural progress by labelling the child's moral qualities just as in the old days we did injustice to a child by labelling his or her subjects as 'poor' or 'very bad', when the maximum effort had been made in a lesson for which the child's state of brain development was not ready. I expect to be labelled as a Philistine when I say that I like none of the reports. Certainly I do not like the old; but equally I do not like the new. I hold no brief for those used in my own school, for I do not think they are right, though we use them temporarily for want of better.

On the other hand, after my depressing beginning, I confess to feeling immensely cheered by the letters from the various Headmasters and Headmistresses, explaining what they thought about reports in general. Many of them treat the report as a temporary tool which is not very important, and which can be discarded if it does not prove to be of value. In many schools where the co-operation of the school and the parents is a reality, the report has become a mere formality and in a few, it is not even used.

We can say quite definitely that the old type of report did harm—sapping the courage of girls and boys, who were often working quite hard at subjects in which they had little or no ability. These same girls and boys often had a rankling feeling of injustice set up by the report. This became a barrier between them and the authorities, and then an additional barrier was raised at home by the disappointment of the parents on reading the report. Hence the harm.

Next, as to how far reports are useful at all remains to be seen. Personally, I feel that some sort of report is useful, provided that the

criticisms are constructive, quite true, and completely understood and agreed upon by the child; and provided also that the parents understand the criticisms, realize the mistakes or the lack of effort and know that their part is definitely not to dwell on the past but to hope for the future. If, at the end of the next term, the report can speak of the effort at achievement in the direction commented upon, then I think that the two reports have a definite constructive value.

Many attempts are being made to do away with the old harmfulness. It is obvious that all

are sincere in their desire to gain a new constructiveness. But as I said before, it is the letters and comments accompanying the various reports which give me so much hope, rather than the reports themselves; because I feel from these letters that if the new reports are tried and found unsatisfactory they will follow the old ones into the waste-paper basket. They will, in fact, be treated as what they really are—somewhat clumsy tools for handling the very delicate and subtle unfolding of a child's character and brain.

The Break with Tradition in Some English Schools

It is quite impossible to classify the material which has been sent in, for each school has its own method of dealing with the problem, and though there is a superficial resemblance between some of the reports, they are used in very different ways, and the apparently formal record may be supplemented by various systems of talks with, letters to, or reports from, parents.

Thus, at one school the record used does not appear to depart much from the traditional lines. But this record is only used at the present time because the parents insist on some form of chart of their child's progress so that they can compare it with those of other children at different schools. The Principal deplores this view and a careful system of talks with children and parents has been arranged to counteract the evils of the formal report and to ensure that in no circumstances will an unsatisfactory report be used as a weapon to threaten the child. The Principal writes:

'The whole problem of reports is a very complicated one. When this little school first started, I hoped that we might be able to keep in such close touch with parents that ordinary reports would not be necessary, but all our parents seemed to want some kind of summary of progress at the end of term. I therefore started off without any printed form, and simply wrote down, under headings, what I thought was most interesting and most important for the parent to know about each individual child.

'Then I found that parents asked for information about the progress made in each individual

subject, partly because they wanted to make comparisons with reports from other schools, and partly, I suppose, because their own minds were so accustomed to the usual segregation of school subjects that they found it easier to understand their children's work if it was spoken of under the old familiar headings. They like regular report forms with invariable headings so that reports can be kept in the family files and compared term by term. I do not like them myself because we do not think of children and their work under such headings, and it is extraordinarily difficult to write about them that way. But these reports are essentially for parents and it seems to me that they have a right to know what they want to know about their children.

This view seems to be fairly general. In a progressive boarding school where parents and teachers meet frequently for discussion, it is felt that reports are necessary because parents expect a summary of their child's progress, so that they may have some idea of how the child reacts in a group and what ability and promise he shows compared with other children. The apparently formal and academic end-of-term reports are, however, supplemented by others, sent once a year, and gauging numerically above and below the normal the staff's opinion of each child under the headings *Industry*, *Progress*, *Standard of Attainment*. An interesting divergence from the prevailing custom is also found in the addition of a report on the child by the other children in the group or company to which he belongs, and of a similar report by the Adviser (a member of the staff). This is also

one of the few schools which has parents' reports.

At yet another school, the end of term report is just a formality, for the parents have had so many opportunities of discussing their children with other members of the staff that any supplementary comment on the child's character or attainments is unnecessary. In addition, the parents have an opportunity of giving their views on the child and his progress in their own report on the holidays.

The actual records used by this group of schools have a superficial resemblance to the traditional type of report, but the use to which they are put and the spirit in which they are filled in are entirely different. Other schools, however, show a tendency to break right away from the ordinary kind of record.

Summing Up Personality

There is one interesting example intended for working class parents and therefore very simply worded. The ordinary subject subdivisions are not used at all, but there are four main headings:

Behaviour,
Mental Progress,
Manual Dexterity,
Physical Development.

These are again subdivided rather differently for the various age groups. For very small children, the Behaviour section contains sub-headings: *Helpfulness, Courage, Manners*; while Mental Progress has only one sub-heading: *Concentration*. On the other hand, for children of over twelve, Behaviour is divided into *Sense of Honour, Ability to choose and follow right course in face of difficulty, Team Spirit, Manners*. Mental Work has for sub-headings: *Ability to Plan, Power of Attack, Power of Concentration*.

A rather more elaborate system, but one which is similar in principle, is adopted by one of the newer types of boys' Public School. In this the Physical Report comes first, showing growth and development. Crafts and Arts with suitable sub-headings follow, and the class subjects come next—each subject having a separate section. At the foot come three important divisions: Social Responsibility, Moral and Religious Development (*manners and motives*), Mental Development (*outlook,*

reasoning, memory, concentration, expression). The Headmaster's comments are on the front page and on the back there is space for the Parents' Report on the holidays. This type of report marks a definite attempt to get beyond a mere record of academic efficiency; it endeavours to sum up the child as an individual, to give a just picture of his development as a person apart from his aptitude or deficiency in various subjects.

Work Charts

Two other examples of English reports are of particular interest because they show a tendency to escape from these written comments and to show at a glance by means of ciphers what progress has been made in certain subjects, how much time has been taken and how much effort has been expended. These charts are, of course, combined with fuller reports on the child's character and progress in work.

At another Public School, for instance, the written reports on each subject are filled in on small separate sheets, so that each master gives his verdict unbiassed by the phrases of the preceding one. In addition, there is a work chart of which a few sections are reproduced, and which immediately makes the boy's progress clear. This school has been much influenced by its contact with the celebrated German Schloss Salem and the Certificate of Maturity used at Salem is also used in the English school, not as a rigid form but as a guide.

Another type of statistical chart is in use for the senior pupils at one of the larger girls' schools. It shows the girl's record over a number of years, and it is possible to see at a glance what subjects she has found difficult, where she has been able to overcome these difficulties and how far she has progressed in subjects she has found easier and more congenial. On this part of the form, no written comment at all is made, and the record merely shows progress over a number of years in terms of proficiency.

Should Reports be Confidential?

In considering the English reports and the comments made on them by the various heads of schools, it is evident that there is a very large measure of agreement on at least two points: first that the old-fashioned report was definitely harmful, and secondly that individual character and effort—which counted for little in the old

report—are far more important than academic proficiency. On the other hand, no two schools have the same method of summing up this factor. Similarly, there are two other important points on which there is a good deal of difference of opinion. In the first place, there is the question of whether reports should be considered confidential or not—should they be shown to the children or should they go direct to the parent and be written on the assumption that their contents will not be divulged to the child? At least one very important school acts on the belief that if a report is to be of any value, it must be confidential; the document is sent home in a sealed envelope and parents are definitely requested not to tell the child its contents unless the Headmaster has been consulted. The other view has been very well expressed by a Headmaster who himself believes that reports should be seen only by the parents but finds that he

has the whole body of parents against him. On the other hand he fully appreciates the view that a confidential report would involve the danger of the child feeling that a ‘secret document’ was being sent home from the school. It was generally felt that it would be bad for the children to feel that they could not see their own reports. At another school, parents are discouraged from reading reports to their children and their tendency to do so is counteracted by a system under which any child may go and see the Head and discuss its own report. The Principal writes: ‘Practically all the older children do this now and I find the discussions most valuable. I do not usually read the whole of the parents’ report to the child, but I do read it a simplified version of its own, and I often put things in a very different light to parents and child; but the fact that we have these discussions gives the child confidence and

NAME												
SUBJECTS	1930			1931			1932			1933		
Scripture			OT. 1 NT. 1=	2 +	3 =	4 =	5 =	6 =	7 =	8 =		
English History			1 +	2 +	3 =	A 4 =	5 =	6 +	7 =	8 = 9 =		
Other History					3 =							
English Literature			1 =	2 =	3 =	B 4 =	5B =	6 =	7 =	8 +		
Diction			1	1 =	1 +	2 +	3	4.5.6.	7 =	7 +		
Writing			G	G	X	=	=	=	=	=		
Composition			1	2	3 =	4 B	5B =	6 =	7 =	8 +		
Picture Study				2 =	3 =	4 =	=			+		
French			1 =	2 A	3	4 B	5 B	6 B	7 =	8 =		
Latin or German			1 +	2 +	3 =	4 =	5.6.	7 +	8 + 9	+		
Botany			1 =	2	3 =	4 -	4.5 +	6 +	7 +	8 =		
Science						4 -	4.5 +	6 +	7 +	8 =		
Geography			1 =	2 =	3 +	4 +	5 =	6	7 +	8 =		
Arithmetic			1 +	2 =	3 +	4 +	5 =	6 =	7 =	8 -		
Algebra			1 =	2 +	3 +	4 =	5 =	6 =	7 =			
Geometry			1	2 -	2.3 -	3.4 -	4.5	6	7 -			
Gymnastics			1 +	2. 3	4. 5.	6 -	8. 9	10. 11	12 *	*		

The work shown in this chart is divided into Stages 1 to 11.

Figure underlined = Honours gained in Stage

Figure with + = Good pass

Figure with = = Satisfactory pass

Figure only = Weak pass

Figure with - = Failure in Stage test

The work shown in this chart is divided into Stages 1 to 11.

Figure underlined = Honours gained in Stage

Figure with + = Good pass

Figure with = = Satisfactory pass

Figure only = Weak pass





Figure with - = Failure in Stage test




This diagram is an exact copy of a section of a report used in a well known girls' school. It shows the progress of a pupil who had considerable difficulty with academic subjects.

an interest in its own progress. The child knows exactly how it stands and no mistaken parent can hold the fear of an unknown report over it. . . . Most of our parents co-operate splendidly over reports now, so that when there is anything in the parents' reports which I feel should very definitely be kept from the child, I can usually write frankly about it, and sometimes I send home two reports, one for the parents and one for the child. Many of the parents also come and discuss reports with me as freely as do their children'.

Parents' Reports

The second point on which there is some divergence in practice and opinion is the growing custom of Parents' Reports. These reports are written by the parent on the child's behaviour, physical growth, interests and amusements during the holidays. A formal report from the parents is only given in a few of the schools from which information has been obtained; but they are generally found to be of value,

WORLD HISTORY	Work done	L	AB
	250	Time spent	80
GEOGRAPHY	Work done	Y	CD
	250	Time spent	40
CHEMISTRY	Work done	B	EF
	250	Time spent	40
PHYSICS	Work done	B	EF
	250	Time spent	80

The quality of the work is shown by α, β, γ ; the quality of the effort by the shadings:
 = good;  = fair;  = poor

Section of a Work Chart in use at a Boys' Public School

PARENTS' REPORT ON THE HOLIDAYS

PHYSICAL—*Health:*

Outdoor occupations:

Usual bedtime—Rising time—Number of theatres, late nights.

SOCIAL (*manners, motives, loyalties*)—

e.g. Is he actively helpful at home?

How does he talk about his school life?

MENTAL—*How has he been spending his time indoors? What appear to be his leading tastes? What books has he read? What creative work has he attempted during these holidays?*

PERSONAL—*What appear to have been his governing motives in life during these holidays?*

though most teachers seem to find them valuable rather as the revelation of the parents' character than as a contribution to the school's knowledge of the child himself. The reports from parents vary a great deal in length: some contain a section for the parents' suggestions or criticisms regarding the school, others do not.

There is no doubt that if parents were fully and consciously co-operating with the school and understood the educational aims of the school, such a report could be of very considerable value. But if it is to be of real service in the child's development, and if all danger of its being used by the parents as a threat to ensure good behaviour in the holidays is to be avoided, this co-operation must be very close indeed.

The aim of this article is merely to give some account of the different attempts which are being made in some of our progressive English schools to bring reports into line with the teaching of modern psychology. In our next issue, the break with tradition in some American school reports will be described.

The headings of a typical Parents' Report

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Social Progress Through Education—III

WILLIAM BOYD

THE second difficulty confronting progressive education is that in a free country, where all shades of opinion find political expression, there must be a substantial measure of agreement before any change in educational policy can be made effective. A new language, for instance, can only be given to a people through the schools if there is a general wish for it. The people of different national origins in the United States learn English, not simply because it is the language of the schools, but because they cannot get on without it. But the people in the Tyrol, who are being compelled to learn Italian in the schools, will continue to speak their own German, and the same thing is probably true as between Irish Gaelic and English in the Irish Free State, even though it is not conquerors but politicians who are trying to impose the new language there.

What applies to languages applies to any attempt at reform in educational procedure. It is not enough that a Government should decree that something new should be learned. If an educational change is to have any chance of success, it requires much active goodwill and no great measure of ill-will on the part of any section of the community. Autocratic governments may force their views on the schools, but that cannot be done in a democratic country. Is there then any chance of obtaining the agreement needed for real educational reform in a country like ours?

The Exceptional Position of Education

The answer is that education is one of the few social functions in which democracy shows a strong progressive urge. Most civilized countries, especially since the war, realize the importance of having a good educational system as a means to national security in a world of conflicting nations; and in spite of the disparagement of popular education by reactionary groups, distrustful of the effects of improved and lengthened schooling, there is evident everywhere a move towards better education which gives vital education an opportunity to

establish itself if it can. This is a chance for the New Education and for the new social life towards which it is heading. The New Education undoubtedly runs counter to many accepted ideas, but if it is able to meet the demands for a better education than the ordinary schools are giving now, it will, sooner or later, be accepted on its merits, without too much regard for its social implications.

The Idealism Behind the New Education

Another reason for faith in the New Education as a creative social influence is that, however revolutionary it may seem in comparison with the old education, the ideals which inspire it are accepted by people of all parties. The high regard it has for the child has its origin, so far as our civilization is concerned, in the teaching of Jesus about childhood. The Kingdom of God upon earth, Jesus taught, is made up of people with the child's spirit: the wisdom hidden from the wise and prudent is plain to little children. And the insistence on the educational virtues of freedom and play goes back to the teaching of the other great idealist, Plato. Apart from this spiritual ancestry, there is in all generous souls a desire that the children should enjoy a richness of life that they have only partly realized for themselves. All of us can project ourselves into the happy child getting, under the conditions of the good home and the good school, a satisfaction out of life greater than life allows to most of us when grown up.

The Effect of Opposition

This does not mean that when it becomes a reconstructive force the New Education will not encounter strong opposition from people who find it cutting across the established ways. But this is a good thing, not a bad thing. There is always the danger that the education which makes freedom and interest and play its watchwords will remove from the child's life the hardness that is necessary for proper character formation and for social efficiency. A strong and persistent opposition will prevent that. It will

compel the new educators to make good in a practical way; to turn out their pupils competent in the mechanics of learning as well as vitally inspired. There are two sides to all learning—a mechanical side, as shown in accurate counting, grammatical language, correct spelling, ready obedience, and a spiritual side, shown in intelligence and comprehension and appreciation. While the New Education can never allow the spiritual side to be sacrificed to the mechanical, it will only make good either in school or society if it can ensure competent performance in the mechanics as part of the larger whole of a free, independent, joyous life that gets the most for itself out of every experience because it loses itself in great causes.

Instruction in Controversial Issues

Thus far we have been considering the obstacles to change that come from differences of opinion in the community, with reference only to the education of children in the public schools. In this regard, there is general agreement that those who want to change people through school instruction must keep off politics and everything else that is controversial. Anyone who wishes to instil into children ideas for or against prohibition, vivisection, socialism, or unorthodox religion, must do so outside the school. Whether in the long view, it is either fair to children or educationally sound for grown-ups to attempt to fix their ideas and attitudes in such matters, inside or outside the school, is a question open for debate. But as things are, the child must obviously be brought up in the ways of its parents and receive some measure of indoctrination. Extra scholastic instruction in institutions like Socialist Sunday schools, which impart new points of view, is just an extension of the home education and is presumably carried on with the consent and goodwill of the parents. To attempt to hamper it because the opinions taught are contrary to the accepted order of things in politics or religion, as is done in a recent Act against Blasphemous and Seditious Teaching, is an unnecessary interference with the freedom of thought which is the essential condition of healthy change in a democratic state. Theoretically, it may be right to check tendencies of thought likely to be socially

hurtful, but a stable state can afford to run the risks of such hurt with the certainty that wrong opinions will flourish under persecution and wither under freedom. From the point of view of the future, it is a mistake to ban any serious convictions by artificially preventing the spread of them. Democratic government rests on the faith that under free conditions truth will prevail.

Controversial Subjects in Adult Education

When the persons undergoing instruction are adults, the inclusion of controversial topics in subjects like economics, history and philosophy, which are the subjects of greatest interest in adult education, is inevitable. The only question is what restrictions, if any, are to be imposed. In the Universities of this country, such subjects are usually discussed freely. But classes for adults held directly or indirectly under the educational authorities are in rather a different position. Sometimes controversial matters are vetoed, especially when pressure is put on the authorities by private interests. But generally it is recognized that it is desirable to have social problems discussed judicially with due recognition of the different sides of the controverted positions. This is the method followed by the Workers' Educational Association, founded in 1903, which provides higher education for working men and women through a system of self-governing tutorial classes run on what it describes as 'non-party political lines', and it gets the support of the educational authorities. To most people such an organization seems to allow as much freedom as is needed for the progressive growth of opinion on political questions.

But there is a strong section of working class opinion which is antagonistic to the W.E.A. and regards it as simply buttressing existing institutions. This led to the foundation of the Labour College in 1909 for the propagandist teaching of revolutionary doctrine on Marxian lines. Here two questions arise: first, should teaching by a political body, avowedly revolutionary, be tolerated by the state? The answer implicitly given by the British Government is in the affirmative. Only a stable government would give this answer, but it is the right

democratic answer, and ultimately the only safe one. On the democratic view, every section of the community has its share in the state, and the fullest and best development of society is only obtainable by encouraging each and all to contribute to the state of the future.

Just as the British parliamentary system requires and recognizes an active opposition for its healthy functioning, so democratic education should find a place within it for the encouragement of dissenting ideas from which may come future progress.

Adventures in Education—III

West Sussex

A. J. LYNCH

THE previous articles in this series have dealt with the work of urban schools, and the present article will describe the work of rural schools in West Sussex.

West Sussex extends from Fishergate in the East to Southbourne in the West, and from Petersfield on the Hampshire border in the North to the English Channel in the South. The whole area, with the exception of Worthing, constitutes a Part II Authority, that is to say, it administers both elementary and secondary education. The school population of this administrative area is about 20,000. There are 176 elementary school departments, about two-thirds of which are denominational. The size of the departments varies; many have less than 100 on the roll, some as few as 20. In the more urban areas, 250 on the roll is not uncommon. The staff consists of 600 men and women, one-third of whom are fully qualified teachers.

It was an almost impossible task to attempt to cover the whole, or, indeed, any considerable part of the area, but thanks to the co-operation of the Director of Education, Mr. Evan Davis, it was possible to visit typical schools of all grades. Mr. Davis is a member of the Board of Education's Consultative Committee; he is an extremely keen man, fully alive to modern tendencies in education, and within the financial limits allowed by the West Sussex County Council he is doing a fine work.

The Problem of Rural Areas

Reorganization, as understood by those familiar with the Report on the *Education of*

the Adolescent has not, so far, been carried out in the area to any great extent. In places like Chichester, Horsham, and Shoreham, where, owing to the urban conditions, the problem can be more easily approached, it has been carried out in part, and would have been completed long before but for the national financial stress. In the distinctly rural areas the problem presents greater difficulty, involving, as it does, questions of transport and changes of habit and custom.

Village life, though still retaining many of its old characteristics, is gradually undergoing great changes. In some areas there seems, for instance, to be little demand for workers on the land, and villagers tend to go to the towns in search of work. Amusements, too, seem to be changing. Motor-outings, for which the villagers save up for a long time beforehand, are becoming quite common. From one place, the villagers in groups ventured as far away as Olympia and Whipsnade, and often go to the nearest town ten miles away in order to attend whist-drives.

In the schools these changes are reflected chiefly in the desire of the village parents to send their children to a secondary school. However far away the school, the parents make every effort, either through the scholarship system or a struggle to pay fees, to satisfy this desire. In one school, where the average attendance of boys and girls over eleven could not have been much more than 30, from two to four pupils move off each year in this way. The effect of this on the life of the village is as important as the effect on the pupils themselves.

It is interesting to note that in West Sussex the fees for the secondary schools were £15. 15s. 0d. a year, even before the issue of Circular 1421 by the Board, and that fees have therefore not been raised. The proportion of Special Places awarded is only 30 %, and at the examinations last year only 129 Free Places were awarded, though 1,217 pupils sat and 431 obtained 60 % of the maximum marks obtainable. These facts undoubtedly combine to exclude from secondary education a large number of children who could profit by it.

Buildings

It is sometimes said that the worst school buildings are to be found in the rural areas. While this is by no means universally true, many of the rural buildings in West Sussex are of an old foundation, dating back in some cases to the late 17th and early 18th centuries. In many ways, they are entirely unsuited to modern requirements and out of harmony with modern ideas. But there is often an abundance of light, space, and air. In one instance, the school is conducted in three parts. There is the old building of which the master's house forms part, and dating back to 1745, there is the small main building, erected later, and there is a cottage used as a workshop. Such an arrangement is probably contrary to every canon of school accommodation and administration, but there is a charm, and even romance about it all, that is very attractive. And, if the main concern of school is the happiness and welfare of the children, then, by almost every test that could be applied, this is a really live school. Most of the schools are well supplied with books and materials. The Education Committee hold the opinion that a good standard of education can only be produced if the teachers are supplied with good tools in the form of equipment. It was interesting to note that a per capita allowance is made for school sports' material.

Curriculum

The curricula of the schools vary according to the particular locality though, in the main, the time of the scholar is about equally divided

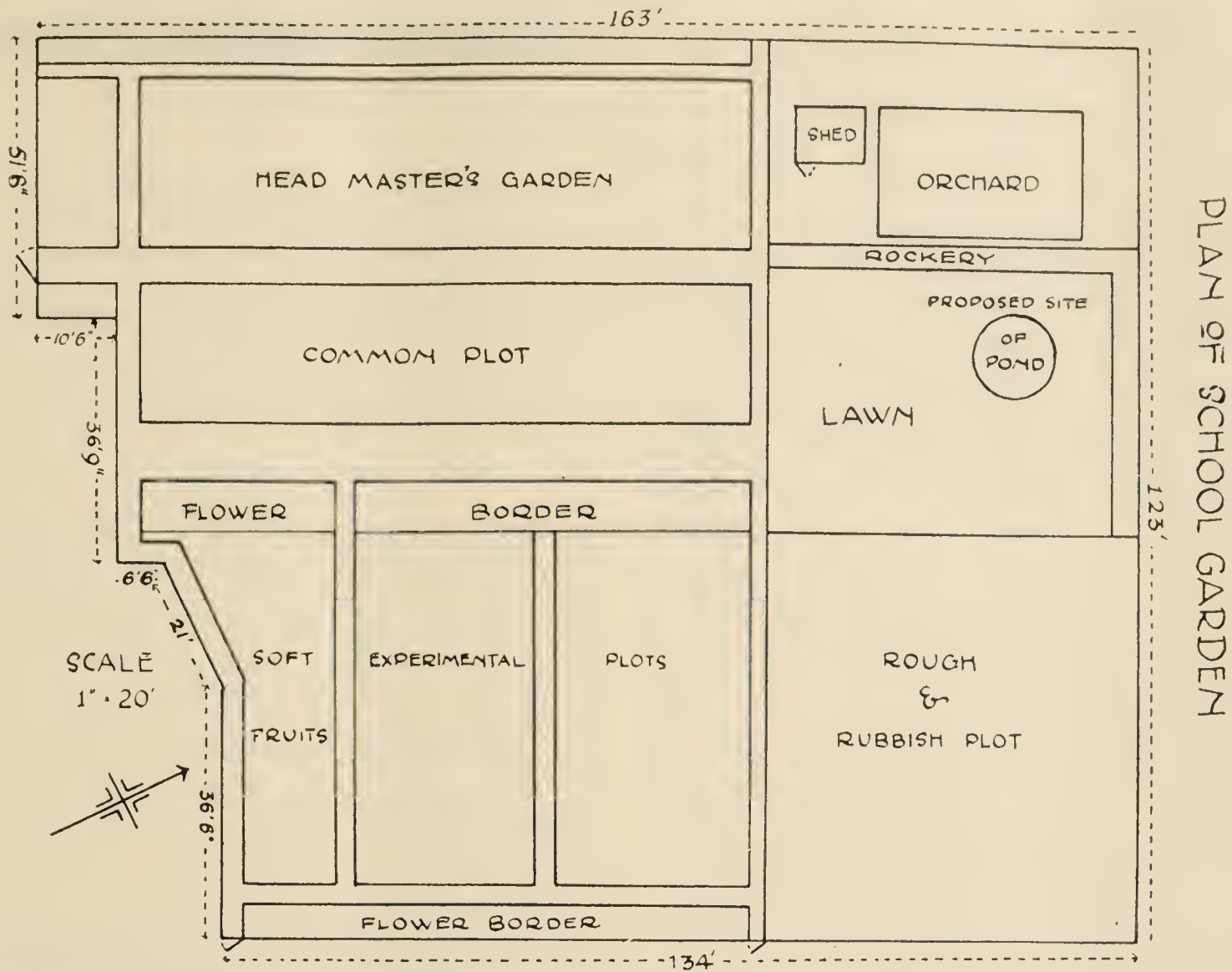
between his academic work and what is called 'practical' work. The standard of the academic work appeared to be about the same as that usually associated with a normal urban school while the standard of the practical work is very high. This may be due to the fact that opportunities to follow practical work, especially of the kind undertaken, are more plentiful and more convenient.

Gardening is connected with almost every rural school, and both boys and girls share in the work. It is carried out on the Dual system, that is to say, there is a communal plot where the formal lessons are given, and there are the individual plots where the principles taught are applied by the pupils themselves. There is often, in addition, an experimental plot. The thoroughness with which the work is done and the importance of it, may be gauged from the fact that one of these experimental plots is the potato-testing centre for the whole county. The accompanying diagram of a school garden which appeared in the January number of *School Nature Study*, shows a typical lay-out although it cannot convey any idea of the interest and enthusiasm the work created.

Craft-work and Broadcasting

Craft-work, too, holds a high place in many of the rural schools. Spinning, weaving, and rug-making were frequently met with. There were no elaborate tools, and most of the work was being done with home-made apparatus constructed in the school workshop. In spite of the primitive nature of some of the apparatus some extraordinarily fine work was being turned out. Rugs of Heath Robinson patterns, scarves and ties of beautiful colour and design, were being made. In one school, a complete dress-length of Harris tweed had been made and was being worn by a lady interested in the school. Woodwork is also popular. It was refreshing to find that, in many instances, it departs from the rather academic courses that seem to be the inevitable accompaniment of the urban schools, and it is put to practical ends, and supplies, among other things, the rough looms and frames required by the craft workers.

Broadcasting plays a great part in rural education. The schoolmaster of one village devised a scheme whereby his pupils were



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encouraged to listen, take notes, and afterwards produce essays on the talks they had heard. There seems to be no limit to the possibilities of this service.

It has been said that the purpose of education should be to produce first a good man, second a good citizen, and then a good workman. If these are the right tests to apply then they seem to be amply satisfied by the schools visited. Actually, fourteen out of the twenty-four members of the Corporation of the Cathedral city, whose population is by no means large, three of its Aldermen, and six of its Mayors, including the present holder of the office, were former pupils of the primary schools.

The Schoolmaster

The village schoolmaster holds a peculiar and responsible position. As one of them remarked to the writer, 'he does everything but marry the folk'. He is in fact, the pastor and peacemaker of the village. His is no five

or five and a half hour day. If god-parents for a new arrival are wanted, or a will is to be drawn up, it is the schoolmaster who is sent for. If a pageant is to be arranged, the schoolmaster and his pupils are called upon. He spends a good deal of his time in getting right relations with parents. In one school, so successful is this work that monthly meetings are held of managers, parents and teachers. The master said he was struck by the fact that many of the parents of his pupils had ideas to express, but, for many reasons, were unable to express them. So he constituted these meetings which have been addressed by the Director, the Medical Officer, and the H.M.I. He always arranges for ample opportunities for questions and discussion. Almost every school has its parents' days and it is generally found that parents respond in good numbers.

Another service rendered is the supply and supervision of mid-day meals at a reasonable price. Many children come considerable distances and stay at the school all day. In one

school so excellent is the system that articles and pictures about it have been published in the general press throughout the world.

The schoolmaster takes a large part in the sports of his pupils. Folk-dancing and ball-room dancing, too, are arranged. In one instance, the folk-dancing is carried out in the open and shared in by both villagers and children. Emphasis is put on ball-room dancing because, as the schoolmaster said, 'Young people like to be in the limelight—they get it in ball-room dancing'. 'The moral troubles of the village', he added, 'do not come from the young people who take part in these dances, but from those who hide themselves in the dark corners of the village.' This may or may not be a universal experience, but it does show that the schoolmaster had given some thought to his problem.

It is interesting to find that there are 120 centres of the County Library in the area. These centres are often located in the schools, the schoolmaster acting as librarian.

It would be so easy for a rural teacher, engrossed in so much extraneous but entirely necessary activity, to become indifferent to the claims of his professional work. But this is not the way of the Sussex teachers. They support to an amazing extent refresher courses held at frequent intervals in some county centre and addressed by acknowledged experts. Moreover, there is a flourishing branch of the Educational Handwork Association run by the teachers themselves, some of whom travel twenty miles to attend its meetings.

One schoolmaster, discussing the purpose of all his craft and kindred work, said he had in mind the hours the young people would have to themselves on leaving school, and he wanted to encourage them to occupy themselves rather than come to rely on others to fill in the time for them. Here, in a small village, was a man who could see an important and growing aspect of the work of education.

When the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education issued its report on the *Education of the Adolescent*, and suggested the segregation of children above and below the age of eleven, it was not that they wanted to add to the Central and Secondary Schools another grade of school, which

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at its best could only be a weak and anæmic imitation of either. What they envisaged, the writer believes, was an entirely new approach to the great mass of adolescents who would never reach, or never profit by, what the Central and Secondary schools provide. As he moved from one rural school to another, the writer saw in many schools, in spite of structural and other difficulties, a near approximation to what the Hadow Committee had in mind. There was no insistence on too much, or too heavy, academic work for every child, nor was there the rigid segregation of the sheep from the goats on a basis of academic distinction which one so often finds. There was just a good-sized family exhibiting many of the best attributes of family life. If the day ever arrives when suitable buildings and fully qualified teachers are to be found in every rural centre, these village schools will be able to show what education ought to be for the majority of our children who are unable to reach high academic standards, for the work they are doing is extremely good and extremely human.

The Changing Curriculum—I

Social Studies: Methods of Work—I

F. C. HAPPOLD

WHAT a boy learns is important, how he learns is more important still. This is especially true of the ordinary boy. The brilliant boy may thrive even under bad teaching—to a great extent he teaches himself—but the latent powers of the ordinary boy require to be brought out. If one merely pours in so-called knowledge the greater part will remain unabsorbed and will be soon forgotten.

Training the Pupil to Think

If one concentrates rather on training the alert mind, experience has shown that the knowledge-content which one uses in the process of that training will be more effectively absorbed and retained. Therefore, having decided what the knowledge-content of our course of Social Studies shall be, we may safely leave it to take care of itself and fix our attention on devising methods so that at the end of his school career the boy may be alert, vigorous and curious. Our methods must be such that he gains continuous practice in collecting material, examining and sifting it and expressing it in various ways. In doing this he will be being trained how to think.

It is difficult to write about method. The best way to study it is in the actual classroom where a practised teacher is at work. Moreover, methods of teaching are an expression of a teacher's personality. No two good teachers teach alike. Merely to copy is to produce something sterile and comparatively lifeless. Every teacher must work out his own methods for himself and the good teacher will vary them with every group he teaches.

Oral Expression

Given the right atmosphere the small boy usually finds it easier to express himself orally than in any other way. In the first stage of training in oral expression, it is best to allow the boy to speak on any subject he pleases. He will choose the things in which he is most interested and about which he consequently knows something and has something to say—his hobbies, his expeditions, trains, aeroplanes, and suchlike things. In the actual lessons the teacher need play little part. Let the boys have their own chairman, develop their own ritual, make their own criticisms and give their own marks. An occasional comment by the teacher at the end of a lecture is all that is necessary. After about a year of practice of this kind, boys may go on to the making of lectures involving more careful collection of material on chosen subjects in history, geography, literature, etc. At the end of a couple of years many boys will have reached a high standard of orderly expression. Much practice should also be given in recapitulation of matter read in or out of class. In the April issue of this journal it was suggested that the legends and great stories of the world would be an appropriate study for the first

year. Books of legends and stories might be distributed round a class, and, after a space for private reading, selected boys may be called upon to tell the stories they have read to their fellow-pupils.

The acting of plays also gives good practice in oral expression. A capable teacher might begin the teaching of drama by means of mime, but such teaching demands ability which some do not possess. A start may, however, be made with acted ballads, from which one may proceed to the easier plays of Shakespeare.

Visual Expression

Training in expression should proceed by natural stages. The small boy's conceptions are concrete rather than abstract and he can best express himself on paper in concrete rather than in abstract forms. In my own school, while the first year's work includes literary expression through free composition, in history and geography great use is made of what we call 'Record Charts'. After a topic has been studied, instead of expressing what has been done in written words, the boy, with the help of the master, reduces his ideas to concrete pictorial form. For instance, if he has been studying the contribution of the Greeks to the development of mankind, his 'Record Chart' might have the following form. In the centre of the page he will draw a map of Greece. Round this will be placed a series of squares or circles, in which, by means of words or drawings or both, the Greek genius in Sculpture, Drama, etc., will be indicated. It has been found that boys allowed to express themselves in this form retain the knowledge gained longer and more effectively than by any other way.

Written Expression

It is undesirable, however, to use this form of expression too long. During the second year's work the boy must learn to express his ideas clearly and logically through the medium of the written word. It has been found by experience that through the making of notebooks, in which definite guidance is given him to help him to choose the right material, the boy gains useful practice in the art of arrangement. This method lends itself to all branches of Social Studies where there is a definite body of knowledge on which to work. At first only one text-book is used. Until he is able to pick out the essential facts and ideas from one book it is undesirable to ask the boy to correlate the perhaps conflicting information he might obtain from several.

In addition to this work of the building up of notebooks, practice may also be given not only in prose composition on the subjects on which the information has been collected, but also in more imaginative media, such as narratives, poems and short dramatic scenes in prose or verse.

Library Work

Boys trained in this way have little difficulty in tackling successfully a piece of sustained research of a simple nature with the use of a library. In my own school the last term of the second year is given to work of this description. Boys are divided into groups of two or three. Each group chooses a subject involving the idea of development, such as the development of transport, ship-building, architecture, agriculture or industry, or some such theme as the progress of geographical discovery. Material is collected from a library and the final result expressed, since it has been found that the long essay or treatise is too difficult a task for boys of this age to attempt, in the form of a development chart.

Though the master is available to give help when needed, each group carries out a great part of its work unaided.

It is only possible in a short article to suggest very briefly lines of approach. Each individual teacher must work out the details for himself. Much information on the application of these methods to the teaching of one branch of Social Studies, history, will be found in the writer's *The Approach to History*. Experiment is proving, however, that similar methods are equally applicable to other branches of Social Studies. Long experience has moreover shown that boys trained in this way become mentally alert and vigorous and ready to attempt effectively the harder tasks of the next stage in their school career.

The Changing Curriculum—II

The Teaching of English : Taking Stock *

J. COMPTON

THERE is to-day a considerable degree of uncertainty as to whether the condition of our English teaching can be regarded as satisfactory, and on the whole, it is felt that we cannot afford to be too happy about it. This sense of dissatisfaction is difficult to define; but it becomes clearer if one goes back to 1920 and considers some of the 'classic' works which have had most influence since 1921. These are probably George Sampson's *English for the English*, the Report of the Newbolt Committee on *The Teaching of English in England*, Lambourne's *Rudiments of Criticism*, and two lectures by Sir Arthur Quiller Couch, *The Art of Reading* and *The Art of Writing*. I must confess myself that, in going back to these works, I have a distinct feeling of uneasiness. There is so much that is harmonious; fine sounding and attractive, but one is a little tempted to say with Verlaine: 'Prends l'eloquence et tords lui son cou'. As a contrast, one can take what is perhaps the best book on English teaching in our time, *Teaching English*, by G. Y. Elton. This book gives a sense of vital contacts; it suggests the actual relations between the class and the teacher and conveys a working atmosphere—not a study atmosphere

a letter to express his personal impressions to his friends.

I ORAL TRAINING

It should be possible to train a boy so that he is able to speak clearly and intelligently and without mannerism which will hinder him in social contacts. The problem of standard speech is too vast to be compressed into this course, but we would all agree that a child should receive some speech training. Do we give him adequate training and what is the best way of giving it?

Formal Speech Training

It is by no means certain that a formal course in speech training gives good results. It may be an ugly and intrusive thing which will actually hamper the intellectual and spiritual development of the child unless, indeed, it is so delicately and skilfully handled that it fits in with the ordinary English syllabus. But no one has so far worked out a satisfactory technique in speech training for children in classes of forty or more. The significant and basic fact that children need to be taught to listen as well as to make sounds is by no means completely understood.

PROBLEMS CONFRONTING THE ENGLISH TEACHER

The aims of the English teacher are three-fold; he must:—

- (1) teach a boy some command of his native speech so that he can express himself orally on matters about which he has thought or feeling—matters within his personal experience;
- (2) teach him to read so that he learns what books can give in the way of personal pleasure and so that he can read for information;
- (3) teach him to write simple statements for purposes of conveying information, or in the form of

II READING

The Mechanics of Reading

Here we are certainly on the right lines; we have every reason to be satisfied with our methods and the results are definitely good.

The Approach to Literature

Here the position is much less satisfactory. Paradoxically enough, the real weakness lies in the fact that our approach is too literary. We have a notion of a

* It should be made clear that this course refers specifically to the Teaching of English in senior schools.

adder of literary taste up which the child progresses; but I doubt its existence and I doubt whether we ever trouble to inquire what we mean by literary taste. We have recently adopted a specious study which we call 'Literary Appreciation', and this study has very probably done a great deal of harm to the teaching of literature in this country. The very name seems inherently to suggest that literature is an elegant adornment of sophisticated life. It suggests a dilettante approach to genteel leisure hour pursuits. It is a devitalizing study and it has brought into the schools the sophisticated language of critical appraisal. It encourages introspection—which literature soundly taught should dispel—for it requires the child to inquire what happens in his own mind when he reads a certain passage. And it also encourages a sentimentalism which is particularly harmful to young minds.

Training in Critical Awareness

Any course of literature, however, should train the child in critical awareness: it should help him to distinguish between an appeal to his emotions and an appeal to his reason. The influence of the cinema and of broadcasting is growing, and it is impossible to envisage what its development—controlled or uncontrolled—will mean to the schools. But as teachers, we have not yet faced the enormous need for innocuating children against the influence of mass emotion. The mind of the normal child is dry and astringent: it resists the effects of cruder and more obviously harmful films and books, but the corrosive effects of sentimentality may be far-reaching. It is becoming increasingly difficult to withstand the influence of mass suggestion: Press, Publicity, Advertising, Broadcasting and Cinema—all these trade on our cheaper instincts, and often so skilfully that we are unaware of their influence. We cannot deal with the teaching of literature without considering how we can help the child to keep his mental balance when he is being blared at on all sides. Hence it is as important to teach him to suspect print as it is to teach him to respect it.

Education for The Future

Our hopes for the future would be sombre indeed if we did not believe in the power of education. Our function as teachers has grown considerably: we have not only to impart knowledge, but we have also to endeavour to train up a generation with the mental and spiritual equipment which will enable them to lead us out of the present impasse. There is no subject in the school curriculum which reflects the teacher's philosophy more clearly than English. It is impossible to teach it without, in the best sense of the phrase, giving yourself away. It is impossible to teach it without learning more about children every day, and it is impossible to teach it unless your own philosophy is clear and your faith in children is secure.

II TEACHING CHILDREN TO WRITE

Once a child can compose a simple sentence he is faced with the problem of learning to write two

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different kinds of things: he has to write statements or reports for his own or other people's information, and he wants to express on paper his feelings and personal experiences for the benefit of his friends.

In considering these two allied aspects of a composition scheme, we have to face the question of originality. What is originality? Here again, it is a help to refer to the past. In 1920, a whole series of books appeared on composition through reading. It was based on the principle of the sedulous ape: the child learnt to write by copying someone else. It is a fallacious method, and useless to the average boy or girl. It merely teaches them a collection of stamped-out phrases and induces the belief that if they know enough of these clichés they will be able to write. In some measure, of course, we all learn to write by mimicry, but the degree and kind of mimicry are important.

Originality, Imagination, Self-Expression

There has been a reaction against the old futile type of essay on 'The Horse' or 'Spring', and we are told that the child must be allowed 'self-expression'. Self-expression is a word like 'liberty'—it means many different things to many different people. The average child is most interested in doing things, and when it comes to writing, he wants to write about the things he is interested in. The word imagination also causes trouble: it is frequently used to describe compositions which are not in the true sense of the word imaginative but are merely fanciful variations on

hackneyed pretty-pretty themes. Imagination suggests mental muscle—there is something vital and virile about it. And originality is found whenever anyone reacts simply and directly to an experience and expresses it simply, directly and vividly. The child who watches a postman at a pillar box and can, in writing about it, make you see exactly what happened, is in a positive and definite degree original and imaginative, and, if you like, romantic. Romantic writing deals with the normal material of ordinary experience, and by relating it to a central conception of beauty makes us aware of beauty. The small child can do this if, from the earliest stages, we insist on an intellectual, spiritual and emotional honesty. It is the business of the teacher of English to give the child this training in honesty.

IV WHO SHALL TEACH ENGLAND?

Every teacher in English must in some degree be a teacher of English. If we think of a school as a community, English will be dealt with through many mediums other than the actual English lesson, though pure poetry and prose must always be taught by a

specialist. There should be in every school for a background a web of lively and interesting talk. The average child participates in disconcertingly little intelligent talk or conversation. Every teacher can share in this training in expression and also in teaching the children to read for information. Great opportunities come to the teachers of crafts and sciences, for the child often talks more readily when he is occupied in doing something with his hands than when he is solemnly sitting in a class room. We must not be pedantic or academic in our teaching of English: it is a practical activity.

Lately, more and more stress has rightly been put on the importance of considering the child as an individual, but we have still much to learn about the part played by group activities (except, of course, in physical training). Most of us think of the problem of reading as it affects the individual reader and know very little about the process when there is group activity. Significant discoveries remain to be made in this sphere.

(In our next issue, Mr. Compton's course will be continued and he will discuss in detail the problem of teaching children to write.)

International Notes

FELLOWSHIP NEWS

World Fellow Teas

At the New Education Fellowship teas during April, talks were given by Mrs. Hester Marsden-Smedley on *The Repressions of a Mother*, and by Mr. A. J. Lynch on his visit to the schools of West Sussex.

Tea is served every Friday from 4.30 to 6.0 at 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1. A short talk is followed by informal discussion. Members, their friends and all who are interested are welcome.

SUMMER COURSES AND CONFERENCES

Vacation Courses

Full particulars of the various vacation courses in England and on the Continent will be found in two recent publications, *Vacation Courses in England, Wales and Scotland*, 1933, price 6d., issued by the Board of Education, and *Holiday Courses in Europe*, price 1s., from the Oxford University Press.

England

Of the many interesting courses listed, the following will be of particular interest to our readers. *The British Social Hygiene Council* will hold a Summer School at St. Hugh's College, Oxford, from 27th July to 3rd August. In addition to special lectures, there will be courses on Anthropology, Biology, Psychology and Physiology. Further particulars may be obtained from the Secretary, Carteret House, Carteret Street, London, S.W.1.

The *City of London College* will hold a course on

English from 31st July to 18th August. It is particularly designed for foreign students and arrangements will be made for excursions in connection with the course. All inquiries should be addressed to the Head of the Department of Modern Languages, City of London College, Ropemaker Street, London, E.C.2.

The *Froebel Society and Junior Schools Association* will hold a course from 31st July to 12th August at the Maria Grey Training College. Particulars may be obtained from the Secretary, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

France

Among the holiday courses on the Continent is the *Seventh International Gathering of Schoolchildren* (under the direction of Miss E. M. Gilpin of the Hall School, Weybridge) which will be held at the Château de Bures, Villennes, near St. Germain-en-Laye, France, from 1st August to 18th August. As in previous years, the course is intended for children between the ages of 12 and 16 and each morning there will be two hours' language work, followed by games and sports in the afternoon and concerts and entertainments in three languages in the evening. Numbers are limited to 50 English, 50 German and 50 French children, and enrolment should therefore be made at once.

Austria

There will also be four Summer Courses lasting three and four weeks at the Hellerau-Laxenburg School between June and August. Further details may be obtained from the *Schule Hellerau-Laxenburg*, Schloss Laxenburg, bei Wien, Austria.

Germany

A list of Summer Courses organized by the *Zentralinstitut für Erziehung und Unterricht*, to be held in various parts of Germany during July and August, may be obtained from the *Zentralinstitut*, Potsdamerstrasse 120, Berlin. The series includes nine different courses, lasting from five to twelve days each, on widely varying aspects of education.

The *Rein'sche Ferienkurse in Jena* will take place this year from 19th July to 15th August. The course covers a wide field of instruction in the German language and literature and special arrangements are made for foreigners. Fuller information may be obtained from Frl. Cl. Blomeyer, Carl-Zeiss-Platz 15, Jena.

Sweden

Five interesting summer courses have been arranged to take place at the Siljanskolan, Tällberg, during July and August. The subjects of these courses, which will be conducted by experts from several countries, are Athletics, Dietetics, Mental Hygiene and Child Guidance, Eurhythmics, and Psychology and Ethics of Leadership. Further particulars may be obtained from the Siljanskolan.

CONFERENCES

Among the conferences to be held this summer is the fifth Biennial Conference of the *World Federation of Education Associations*, which will be held at Dublin from 29th July to 5th August. All communications respecting this conference should be addressed to Mr. J. T. O'Connell, Irish National Teachers' Organization, 9 Gardiner's Place, Dublin, Irish Free State.

The sixth English-Speaking Conference on Maternity and Child Welfare will be held from 5th July to 7th July at Friends' House, Euston Road, London, W.C.1. Details of the programme may be obtained from Miss J. Halford, *Association of Maternity and Child Welfare Centres*, 117 Piccadilly, London, W.1.

N.E.F. Conferences

Scandinavia. A regional conference of the N.E.F. for Scandinavian countries is to be held in Norway early in August. Further particulars may be obtained from Mrs. Anna Sethne, Sagenes Skole, Oslo.

Switzerland. Members of the N.E.F. will meet in Switzerland, in Geneva, on 13th and 14th May. The Conference is being organized by M. Pierre Bovet (*Bureau International d'Education*, 44 Rue des Maraîchers, Geneva) and the *Institut Universitaire des Sciences de l'Education*.

OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST**Goodwill Day**

On 18th May the children of Wales will broadcast their annual Goodwill Day message. This day is now becoming recognized as the Children's World Peace Day, and it is celebrated in the schools in a large

number of countries. It is becoming a real factor in the creation and preservation of international understanding between the children of all nations. Replies to the message have now been received from 68 countries.

On the same day the *World League of International Associations*, California, has arranged for a world-wide radio programme, which will provide for the continuous appearance of groups of students over the radio during the twenty-four hours of that day. Twelve countries have already promised their co-operation.

A New Summer Camp in Norway

We learn with interest that the 'Eiken' Summer Camp is to be opened at Horten, near Oslo, from 1st July to 10th August. It is intended for girls of all nationalities from 10 to 18. The fee is £10 and instruction is given in swimming, life saving, sailing, ball games, drawing and painting. Further particulars can be obtained from Miss Helene Hansen, 'Eiken', Horten, Norway.

Voluntary work at a Child Guidance Clinic

A Child Guidance Clinic (L.C.C.) in London (S.E.5 district) would be glad to hear of any teacher, student or ex-teacher who would be willing to do some voluntary work at the Clinic in observing children as they play and writing down their observations for the use of the clinic. Children are there on Monday and Friday mornings from 10 to noon. Several volunteers are needed. Apply N.E.F., 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

Correspondence Wanted

Would any English or American students be interested in corresponding with S. African natives, mostly Zulus, who are training for the teaching profession? Their ages range from 15 to 38. Apply to the N.E.F., 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF GREAT BRITAIN

One of the most unsatisfactory periods in the life of the adolescent is what is known as the 'gap' between fourteen and sixteen. It is the period between the time when a pupil leaves school and the age at which he becomes insurable. This gap has been, and still is, causing real concern in social and industrial circles. But there is another and earlier gap. It is that which occurs between the ages of one and five, in the period when welfare work often ceases and the school age begins. This is the period which comes within that for which the work of the Nursery School Association is carried on.

It is not often that many of the difficulties of the later period are attributed in a large measure to the absence of attention being given to the earlier period. Or, to put it the other way round, that the proper filling of the earlier gap would very greatly help in making the difficulties of the later gap less troublesome. Speaking in London recently, the Rt. Hon.

Margaret Bondfield used this very argument. In attempting to point to a remedy for the troubles of the later gap, she emphasized in a vigorous manner the necessity of encouraging the establishment of Nursery Schools on the lines, as she put it, of the Deptford Plan. She would compel L.E.A.'s to establish them if a sufficient number of parents

demanded them. Miss Bondfield showed herself to be an ardent and enthusiastic believer in the movement.

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The amount subscribed to the Tudor-Hart Fund by the members of the Nursery School Association has now reached almost £70.

Bookshelf

The Experimental College. *Alexander Meiklejohn.* (Harper Brothers, New York.)

This book is the report of a five-year experiment recently carried out at the University of Wisconsin. It is also probably the most important contribution, since Dr. Flexner's book on Universities, to the discussion of the function of a university in the modern world. It is, therefore, perhaps not without significance to English readers, especially to those who recall Dr. Flexner's sometimes stringent but always pertinent remarks.

Dr. Meiklejohn, like Dr. Flexner, is a humanist; he sees all problems in the classical framework of ends and values. It is this outlook which to the modern Westerner is the really revolutionary and subversive one; it is immediately and rightly suspect by academic specialist and by scientist, by the institutionalist and by the practical man all alike. For it raises implicitly the question of moral responsibility, the question which specialists and plain men have united in shunning since the days of Socrates. 'I have nothing to do with ends', says the economist discussing unemployment or the chemist experimenting with poison gas, 'mine is a positive, not a normative science.' 'I don't know about ends', says the man of affairs, 'I believe in getting on with the job.' But who does know, and whose business is it to know? In a democratic country, it is obviously the business of the common man and woman—in other words of just those men and women who annually emerge by the thousand from our educational systems.

It is clear, then, that what society should be demanding of its schools and universities is a training first and foremost in intelligence and responsibility, in the ability to use means and to distinguish ends. Competent scholarship, efficient specialization are means, not ends: they are the necessary equipment of that small fraction who proceed to graduate studies and to academic careers; for the rest, they should be continually present as intellectual standards and stimuli; equally they should not—as they invariably do—obscure the main issue. 'The prime task', says Dr. Meiklejohn, 'is not the education of scholars; it is the education of the common man.' In theory, there should be no tension, no divergence between the claims of scholarship and intelligence; in practice, that tension inevitably exists, and as a result—so heavy are the odds against the humanist—our schools tend to become one long-drawn-out diluted St. Bartholomew's Eve for the unorthodox, and our universities either museums or technical schools.

But schools and universities are not cut off from the social order of their time; 'a society can teach only the hopes, the knowledge, the values, the beliefs which it has'. Where and by whom is this vicious circle to be broken? The answer must be, I think, for us as for America, in the first two years of undergraduate life, and by the university. For this there are three reasons: first, the reform of school methods, curricula and examinations has now reached the point where it is narrowly conditioned by university requirements; second, the step from school to college marks for the student the first big departure from a comparatively sheltered life to a life of freedom, responsibility and new questionings; third, it is at this time that the student has to choose, in the light of his known powers and considered predilections, his future manner of life. It is, in a word, that transition time between general education and specialized training, that formative period when cultural influences are and must be decisive.

The Experimental College was started to throw light on just this problem: how could the American university give to its first and second year students that cultural background, that training in intelligence and in responsibility which the American man and woman had so conspicuously failed to get from the established university course? The experimenters finally picked for their themes the study of two civilizations, Athens of the classical period, and America of to-day. For their teaching method, they chose small discussion groups, a close adviser-student relationship, a definite piece of regional study, and the critical reading of specified books. There were no lectures, no compulsory attendances, no external examinations. Students of the College were credited at the end of the two years with precisely the same standing as they would have had with the normal university course. Of many books, two stood out as fundamental—Plato's *Republic*, and *The Education of Henry Adams*. The education was, in fact, deliberately humanistic; the values inherent in its scope and method were precisely the opposite of those accepted by the contemporary life of Western civilization.

What emerges from the experiment? Part of the answer—the less important part—lies in the large mass of written material which is still under examination and assessment by an independent bureau. The more important part is decisive. In the face of almost overwhelming administrative and personal difficulties, an alternative type of 'lower college' course,

based on a conception of liberal education and carried out in units sufficiently small to preserve the close relationships that are fundamental to that conception—this proved both economically practicable and intellectually and culturally suggestive. We in England are apt to see only that side of American education—a side not absent from our own—which is intellectually superficial and culturally non-existent. We might learn something from the recorded experiment of this typical Middle-Western University, which has been ready to call in question the reason for a university's existence.

J. N. Wales

Culture and Environment. *F. R. Leavis and Denys Thompson.* (Chatto & Windus. 3s. 6d.)

This book should be in the hands of anyone who professes or intends to teach what in the school curriculum is usually termed 'English'. It attacks clearly and concisely the evils caused by modern advertising, mass-production and the general break-up of cultural standards. Its method involves an adroit use of quotation and, since it is thoroughly practical, suggestions how to turn these to good account in class. Its main thesis is one that can hardly be denied by any thinking person. It shows how the highly developed metropolitan culture of the eighteenth century and the genuine popular culture that once produced *The Pilgrim's Progress* have both been broken up by all the modern adjuncts of Big Business and Industrialism. In their place there is only the deification of the second-rate of which one can cite no better example than the Book Society. It is amusing to speculate on the possible comments of Addison or Johnson on the monthly 'masterpiece' hailed by the press. This book is a devastating reply to those who argue that the presence of the second, third and fourth-rate in art and literature does not matter, or as I have heard it argued, one ought to and can appreciate both. Economics is not the only sphere where Gresham's Law can be applied. If, as is fast becoming clear, economic developments increase to an enormous extent the leisure of all classes, and if it is still merely a case of bread and circuses, then one can only contemplate the future with a shudder. As it is, the time is short enough, seeing that scarcely a start has been made, but at least we have in this book a clear presentation of the situation and, what is even more important, practical suggestions as to how to deal with it.

E. E. Capon

Peepshow. *Marguerite Steen.* (Ivor Nicholson and Watson. 4s. 6d.)

This is the kind of book which is immensely popular with children. Dealing, on the whole, very competently with practical difficulties attendant on all forms of entertainment got up by children of school-room age, it succeeds, by the device of an assumed authorship of a girl of fifteen, in making its information and advice acceptable and fascinating both to children and grown-ups. It is a pity therefore that it possesses so many blemishes in the eyes of anyone

seriously interested in education or in the maintenance of cultural standards. Consider the adult attitudes implicit in statements such as these: 'Uncle Bim says, "A short story and a one-act play have two things in common; they should open with a bang and they should finish with a bigger bang"'; 'Lyrics are poems about nature'; 'The old Greek playwrights used to come on and talk about things and that's why they're so dull'. Perhaps, however, this quotation in another sphere will make my protest seem more reasonable. In a chapter on theatrical make-up we read, 'Boys must never use lipstick as it makes them look nancy'. Technically untrue, this kind of thing can obviously do incalculable harm. In this atmosphere it is not surprising to find that the author's theatrical notions are consistently pre-war. It is a bit late in the day to hold up to children as ideal the theatre of raked stages, footlights and painted backcloths. It seems such a pity that they should be brought up with no knowledge of modern theatrical tendencies which, in their effort to practice the theatre as an art, do at least make it a realm far more attractive to children.

I might suggest to Nigel (the fourteen-year-old producer) that he saves up his pennies and buys Harold Ridge's *Stagelighting*, even if only for the illustrations.

I say all this in the certainty that the book will be widely bought, read and enjoyed. It has, above all, the merit of fostering exclusively creative activities, so it is with all the greater regret that one finds in it so many illustrations of the sort of adult attitudes against which *Culture and Environment* (see review above) protests so vigorously. And in these days it is a matter of conscience to point them out.

E. E. Capon

What Shall I Be? *Amabel Williams-Ellis. Part I* (William Heinemann. 6s.)

The choice of a career demands more study and inquiry than it usually receives.

Too often a boy goes into his father's business or gets a job through a friend of the family, with little or no effort made to discover whether the boy's talents or temperament fit him for the work in front of him.

It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that one hears so often of men bored with their work or leaving one job for another because they originally made a mistake in their choice of profession.

Any boy or girl who is asking that difficult question: 'What shall I be?' will give this book a warm welcome; for Mrs. Williams Ellis in a most original and successful way tells us just what men and women engaged in a score or more of professions actually do. We get a realistic glimpse of these people engaged in a wide variety of occupations practising their professions and evidently thoroughly enjoying their life, in all parts of the world.

Should I like to be a doctor, biologist, engineer or nurse? What is the life like? What are the qualifications required? Should I like to live abroad? What kind of social life and recreation could I expect, and so on? The answers to all these questions are given in

a way which cannot fail to arouse the interest and stimulate the imagination of the boy or girl who asks them.

In the last section of the book it is suggested that those who have no urge to choose any particular profession could be helped by filling up a 'self measurement form', that is, an estimate of their ability made by themselves or their friends.

It has, however, been found that, where tests have been made, this method has little practical value. In spite of a natural tendency to be modest, the individual is apt to overestimate his good traits or aptitudes and underestimate his weak points. A more accurate estimate would probably be arrived at if a vocational guidance expert were consulted.

Mrs. Williams-Ellis writes in a vivacious and engaging style particularly well adapted to the audience of boys and girls for whom the book is primarily intended.

J. W. White

Dare the School Build a New Social Order?

George S. Counts. (John Day, 1932.)

Not unlike Goodwin Watson's *Creating a Modern Culture* in its incisiveness, this pamphlet hits home. Mr. Counts' criticisms of progressive education are ruthless, and apply as much to Europe as to America. But he discusses also the possibility of the educator becoming the real social leader of to-day. Like all his countrymen, Mr. Counts finds his inspiration in democracy, of which the most genuine expression in the United States has little to do with politics. 'It is a sentiment with respect to the moral equality of men: it is an aspiration towards a society in which this sentiment will find complete fulfilment.' In his view only a bold and realistic programme of education will lead gradually to socialism. C. H. O.

Intellectual Crime. Janet Chance. (Noel Douglas. 5s.)

What is intellectual crime? Mrs. Chance defines it as any behaviour which shows indifference to truth or truthfulness; or is harmful to these.'

It is obviously undesirable, in Bertrand Russell's words, to believe a proposition when there is no ground whatever for supposing it true, yet it is evident that if we all subjected our beliefs to this test society would be revolutionised. This book shows only too clearly that we are all of us guilty in some degree of holding, often with strong conviction, opinions which are not founded on fact and which reason cannot defend.

It is a courageous book for Mrs. Chance spares no one, scientist, journalist, politician or priest, in her demand for rational thinking. It is also a depressing book for it asks for a complete change in human thought and behaviour which, though urgently needed, can only come about very slowly.

Authority will always oppose anything but traditional beliefs and customs, but authority may be finally undermined by the rational education of our children. By that we mean teaching children impartially so that they become accustomed to weigh evidence and form their own conclusions, instead of being encouraged, often forced, to accept without question the prejudices and beliefs of their parents.

Those responsible for the education of children must realize that it is actively harmful to fill their minds with untruths, half-truths, and unproved assertions.

Many people think that intellectual crime is of no great consequence since it has always existed, and presumably always will exist. It is, in fact, one of the greatest of crimes because it hurts society as a whole and it is ruining our hopes of international co-operation.

'If only foreign politics and the national interests could be dealt with in a spirit of openness and truthfulness the practical consequences, in less than a generation, would bring to light the enormous gain to humanity of the enthroning of intellectual integrity over all other interests. It is the world wide neglect of this supreme consideration which is at the bottom of the world ills to-day'.

J. W. White.

Text-Books Received

A General Chemistry. J. Morris. (Gregg Publishing Co. 4s.)

This book covers the usual ground of a Matriculation Course in 'pure chemistry' and is also designed to meet the needs of biological and domestic science students.

The Child's Number Books. P. B. Ballard M.A., D.Litt. (University of London Press. 3 Books. 6d. each)

An introduction to the study of arithmetic for children under eight, very attractively produced.

Century Sum Books. Alfred Wisdom. (University of London Press. 4 Books. 6d. each)

Arithmetic for children of seven or eight.

Enchanted Seas. Story and Study Series. C. F. Allan. (McDougall)

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Reading Scenes from Famous Stories. Reading & Doing Series. Rodney Bennett. (Bell. 1s.)

The Mastery of Reading. Lucy M. Siddell & Anne M. Gibbon. Book 4. (McDougall. 1s. 4d.)

A Stores Project. E. R. Boyce. (Froebel Society. 1s.)

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NICE CONFERENCE REPORT

A Report of the Sixth World Conference of the New Education Fellowship will be published shortly.

Editor.....Wyatt Rawson.

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29, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

Price.....8/- post free.

Our Contributors

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MARGARET LOWENFELD is Medical and Psychological Director of the Institute of Child Psychology, London, member of the Council of the Child Study Association, member of the British Psychological Society, member of the

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A. K. C. OTTAWAY, B.Sc., A.R.C.S., took his Teacher's Diploma at the London Day Training College, and has taught biology and other subjects at Abbotsholme School, Derbyshire, for the last five years, where he is Senior Master. Abbotsholme was founded in 1889 by Dr. Cecil Reddie, an educational pioneer, who originated the New School movement.

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IMPORTANT NOTICE

Readers are asked to note that there will be no August or September numbers of **THE NEW ERA**. Instead, the July number will be enlarged, and unexpired subscriptions will be extended for an extra month to compensate for the omission of the September issue.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

A Monthly Magazine for Parents and Teachers

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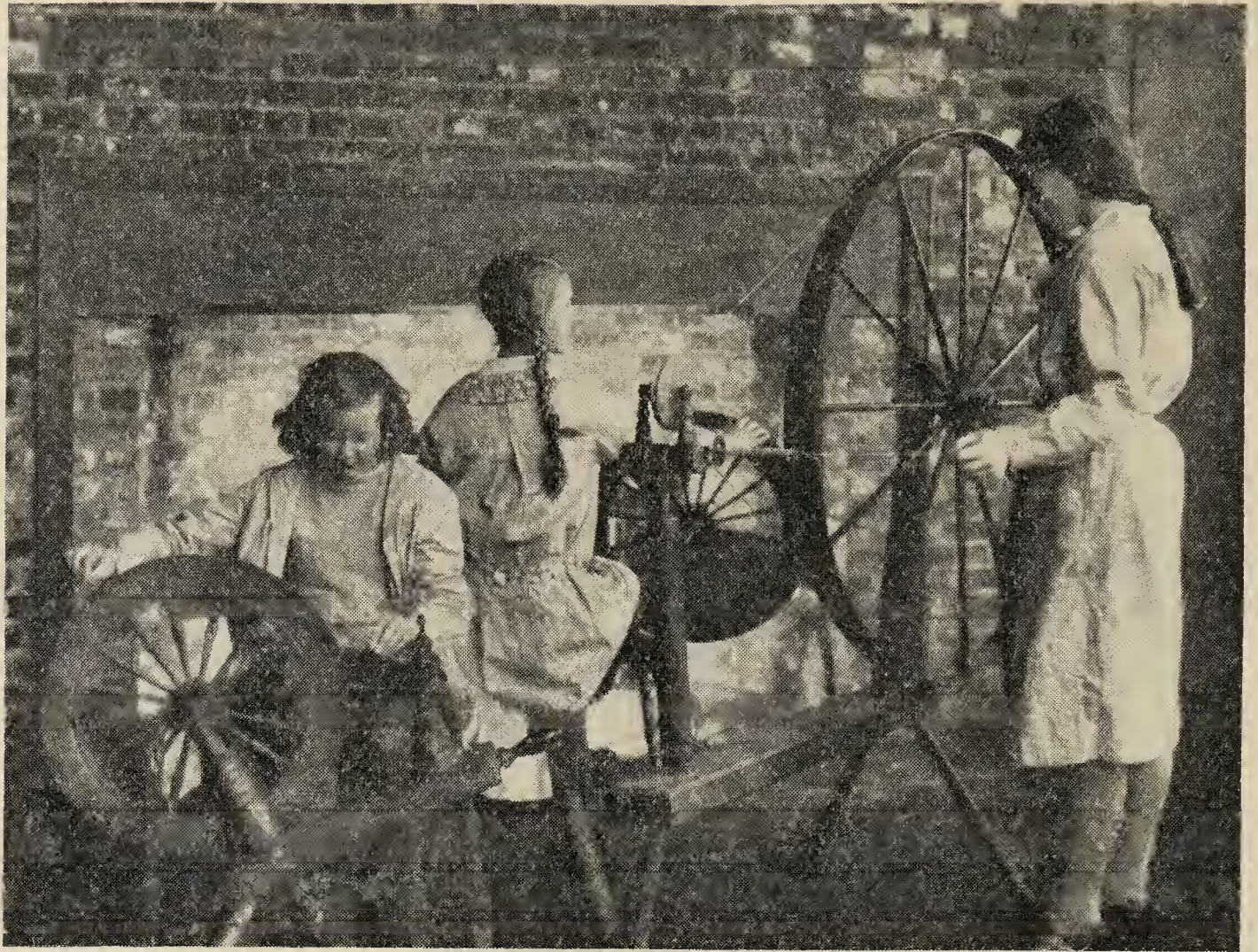
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Learning the Crafts of a Bygone Age. Beaver Country Day School



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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

EDUCATION is so patently the greatest means of moulding society to the will of its rulers that it is not to be wondered at that it has been tossed like a shuttlecock in the game of party politics. As we watch the governance of the modern world swing between democracy and autocracy, we see educational theory veer from an attempt to enable the individual to judge for himself what things are best in both civic and private life, to an attempt to claim his allegiance to a superimposed ideal.

The former is the harder way. It is easier to live dangerously for the sake of a cause outside oneself than to be steadfast to the lonely truth as one sees it. Until it is based upon a society of highly developed men and women whose lives are a full synthesis of many kinds of experience, democracy is bound to fall into drab and humdrum phases in which it loses hold of the imagination and therefore of the will of the majority of men. For man is tantalized by the ideal and finds it easier to envisage the kingdom of heaven without than within him.

Democracy and the New Education We must not, therefore, feel discouraged to see periods of extreme democracy followed by periods of extreme autocracy; nor must we despair because the rank and file have not lived up to the political freedom they have been given. The achievement of democracy depends upon the evolution of mankind. We who believe this are called upon to set education above the vicissitudes of politics, and to concentrate our efforts upon forwarding, through education, the swifter evolution of mankind, so that each time a democratic period occurs in a country there will be more and more citizens who are fitted to use freedom in a self-disciplined manner, with the right emphasis upon individual self-expression in

a nation as part of a world commonwealth.

The chief difficulty lies in our definition of freedom. From the moment they are born, children are imitating and adopting the characteristics and behaviour of the human beings in their environment. The old conservative education based itself almost entirely on this imitative faculty of the child, and thus it perpetuated both the good and the bad in the environment. It is impossible for progressive schools to ignore this imitative tendency in children, since even the freest school is all the time determining the child's environment. What child in a boarding school, for example, has any choice of the major freedoms, unless many methods are used and he can choose by what method—that is to say *under what environmental influence*—he will learn?

The aim of the progressive school should be to enable the child to progress from imitation to free choice, from limited experiences from which he will draw one-sided conclusions, to an open view of the world. Such education is the only one which can make democracy a rational and constructive ordering of society and save it from becoming the plaything of demagogues.

The New Education in Great Britain Let us consider the position of the New Education in Great Britain and in America, for instance. In the former, education is perhaps less of a political tool than in many countries. There has been a tradition of independence, and notable experiments were made even before the present era. The influence of these has changed the face of education, even in the state schools. Some of the most extreme of the English experimental schools have, however, ceased to exist for one reason or another, and we venture to predict that many of those which flourish to-day will

not survive their present heads, for they depend for their success rather on the personality of their leaders than on the soundness of their methods. Yet all these experiments have been and are of immense value—as research posts, as leaven to leaven the lump of conventional education, as inspiration to teachers who have taken something of their spirit and applied it in a modified form to their work in more orthodox schools.

The New Education in America

In America, the great progressive education movement inspired by Parker and Dewey has very considerably modified the whole of education. There have been few extreme experiments but a large number of private schools doing fine balanced work, especially in the education of children under twelve. New Education in the States has not consisted of sporadic and isolated experiments, but is rather a movement based upon a definite philosophy, which has attracted some of the finest teachers in the ordinary run of schools. But here, also, during recent years, there has been a revision of earlier methods, since it was found that projects alone did not provide a sufficient grounding in tool subjects, except in the hands of a particularly gifted teacher.

Progress in education is a question of continuous adaptation. The New Education, which started simultaneously, yet independently, throughout the world, has had much to learn and will have much more to learn. But in the process, it is sifting the grain from the chaff and it has now become stronger and more aware and certain of itself than ever before. As a movement, it cannot fail, because it is based upon a growing need within man himself; each time it has seemed dead, it has risen like a phoenix from its ashes. It is, in fact, part of the great forward movement in the evolution of mankind, and can fail as little as the spirit underlying the League of Nations can fail. But there will be temporary setbacks; one cannot change the thinking of centuries in a few years.

Education Old and New What is the difference then between the old education and the new? It is obviously easier to distinguish between them if one takes extreme

cases; but since, as we have shown, a forward movement in the more traditional schools often takes place simultaneously with a modification of extreme experiments, it is more difficult to define in what the new education consists.

It lies, we may say, in a new spirit, a new attitude to the child; a more exact science of human nature based on the findings of modern psychology. It shows greater respect for the individual, whether the human individual with his special type and his needs, or the individuality of a nation, however small. This profoundly affects teaching methods and allows more room for differentiation and creative self-expression.

Then the new education has an entirely different attitude to discipline; it does not identify discipline with coercion and the fear of punishment but strives to build up self-discipline and co-operation. It is also concerned with the revision of the curriculum content. In view of the rapid changes in modern society it is of vital importance that the new curriculum should be more closely related to life and contemporary development, particularly as far as science and history are concerned. The Holistic philosophy is more and more permeating our conception of educational needs. The task is one of providing adequate material and guidance for the development of the whole man. We are shifting the centre of interest from subject matter to an attempt to provide the right environment for the growth of all that is good in each individual and yet with a view, not to individualistic anarchy but to social maturity.

In various ways we are introducing the conceptions of a world Commonwealth, and striving to put the right kind of Nationalism into proper perspective with the right kind of Internationalism.

There is an ever-growing realization that if education is the most important instrument by which we can mould society, education must not only prepare children to fit into society as it is, but must also lead the way in social reconstruction. Therefore education is not only the concern of teachers, but of all those who are interested in producing a better type of society.

Reports—The Break with Tradition

Some Examples from America

PAUL ROBERTS

MUCH is to be learnt from a careful study of the half-dozen examples of school reports which we have received from American progressive schools, and both for this reason and because it is hard to generalize about them, they are described individually. The respects in which they differ from the average report in use in similar schools in this country stand out very clearly. Nearly all of them display in some way or other a more conscious effort to make the report not only a means of informing the parent of the child's progress but also a means of enlisting the parent's co-operation. Moreover, most of the letters lay stress on the fact that this effort is supplemented by a scheme of regular conferences between parents and teachers about the child's progress and attitudes. The other noticeable feature, a natural result of the greater use made of applied psychology in America, is a marked striving after exact measurements, not only of abilities and achievements but also of every phase of character development. Standardized tests are applied to everything which is susceptible to them, and the development of moral qualities is estimated by reference to fixed questions of a detailed character. While the minute study of the development of the child's whole personality is eminently desirable and indeed long overdue, there are obvious dangers to be guarded against in this method of approach. Chief amongst them is a tendency to crystallize our expectations of the child. One of the principal criticisms which has long been levelled—not without justification—at the English public school system is its tendency to force all boys through the same mould and the almost inevitable tendency of the master to judge adversely the pupils who do not fit the mould. It is the boast of progressive schools that they avoid this danger, but if, in their well-meant efforts to study the child, they standardize their expectations they are in danger of running once again into the old difficulty. Those who

are doing this will tell you that their analysis is merely a scientific systematization of observation, that their classifications have no moral connotation and that therefore the term 'expectation' as applied to them is not appropriate. If they are right and can be certain of this—well and good, but most of us would not be capable of keeping our moral judgments entirely out of the question or of regarding with complete sympathy the child who did not fit our carefully constructed classifications. How many of us, for instance, could continually answer the question as to how a child treats school property without tending to judge more favourably the child who is careful with it than the child who is not?

Apart from this difference of mere systematized analysis, there is a refreshing similarity between the actual remarks made about their children by the American teachers and those made by their English colleagues, not only in progressive schools but in all schools. The same weaknesses are evident and point to what is perhaps the greatest need for further reform in the reports of both countries—a need for more study and clearer thinking on the part of all of us who have to make reports. This is a need unconnected with system or method. There is an obvious vagueness in the minds of teachers as to what qualities in the child are educable and what qualities are not, and also an inability to realize the full implications of their remarks about the child. One short example may partially illustrate this. The following comment is quoted by one of the schools as an example of the type of report to parents made on a child:—

'Freddy's difficulties are due almost entirely to his lack of concentration, and his inability to think through and complete a job without adult compulsion. He needs much responsibility, both for his own life as an individual, and as a member of a group—at school and at home.'

Thirty years ago the same remark would have appeared in the conciser form 'Lacks concentration'. Apart from the obvious effort of

the modern report to enlist the co-operation of the parents there is little difference between the two. Let us for a moment put ourselves in the position of the average father who sends his child to a progressive school and see what he says about this. 'I do not pretend to have your knowledge of the psychology of attention, but it seems to me that obviously my boy does not concentrate on his work because it does not interest him. If it does not interest him it is either because it is work unsuited to his age, experience or proclivities, or because you do not present it to him in a way which will attract him. If neither of these is the case you are committing yourself to the assumption that part of your job is to train my boy to fix his attention by an effort of will for periods of increasing length on tasks which do not interest him. Are you certain whether you know if this is part of your educational theory or not?'

While we have him, it might be well to hear our average father's views in general on his child's report. In most cases his view would be something of this kind. 'I want your report to tell me generally how my child is getting on, whether he is making progress, whether he is making the best use of his abilities; in fact just the things which you do tell me every term. I also want to have as definite a measurement as you can give me—either by comparison with other children or by any other means you like to devise—of his standard of achievement in order that I may form some idea of the types of career which may be open to him. I am anxious to do my utmost to co-operate with you in aiding his development in any way that is in my power, but I would be grateful if you would refrain from using the report sent to me as a means of delivering moral lectures to my child—you have plenty of opportunity for doing that at school; and you would be more successful in securing my co-operation if you would refrain from lecturing me as if I were also a child. I probably am one in educational matters, but I don't like having it rubbed in.' This may or may not be a reasonable attitude, but it is a general one and must be taken into serious consideration in planning the type of report to be sent to the parent.

If these parental demands may be taken as a sort of canon, the American reports fulfil it rather better than most English ones. They give the general impression that their authors have a clear idea of the function of a report and are making a serious endeavour to fulfil these requirements.

Reports from School A.

The reports of this school are the outcome of a strong revolt against any form of competitive marking. The parents are kept informed of the child's standard by being sent the results of regularly applied achievement tests. These results, however, are not communicated to the children. Here is the school's own account of what is done.

'For children below twelve years of age we substitute for competitive marks a very comprehensive written analysis of attitudes, traits, habits, and mastery in subject and activity fields. This is made three times a year, and is based not only on the judgment of the teachers concerned with a child, but also on a considerable amount of objective test material corresponding in type to that described under 1 and 2 for the older pupils.

For pupils over twelve years of age we substitute for the competitive achievement marks a six-fold system of studying and rating development.

1. Individual and group tests of academic ability. Special tests for particular types of ability—mathematical, linguistic, mechanical—may also be used.

Note: The results of such tests are used primarily for guidance purposes. Definite results, as of a Binet test, are considered confidential material.

2. Comparable standardized tests of subject mastery that are designed by experts to

- (a) Act as scales based on essential skills and knowledges and therefore help to establish common standards.
- (b) Enable teachers to analyse strengths and weaknesses as a basis for corrective work.
- (c) Fix with some definiteness the stage of development which a pupil (or group of pupils) has reached in comparison with a very large number of other pupils of the same age who have had approximately the same opportunities.

Note: Comparative scores on such tests are not known by the pupils, although the corrected test sheets may be used with them in a discussion of their own errors.

3. A careful study, by a method that insures general agreement among the teachers in understanding of standards and terminology, of the attitudes, traits and habits of the pupils.

Note: This study, except as noted in 4, is not known to the students, being used only by the faculty and in conferences with the parents, or recommendations to other institutions.

4. A cumulative study, by all the teachers having opportunity to judge, of the working attitude and effort of each pupil, rated on a carefully defined scale.

Note: Pupils know their industry ratings in their various fields of study, and they consider it a serious matter to fall below the 'conscientious' group.

5. A paragraph analysis of each pupil's attitude, development of mastery, strengths and weaknesses in each field of activity.

Note: These ratings are made four times a year and are given to the parents and pupils. They indicate achievement levels, but their emphasis is on development of one's own powers rather than on comparison with others.

6. An achievement mark in letter form summing up the degree of achievement reached by the pupil in a certain period of time.

Note: This would correspond to a degree to the displaced competitive marks. However, these marks are based on somewhat different knowledge of the pupils and their actual achievements, and they are not given to the pupils. They are used only as office records principally valuable in transferring to other schools or to colleges.'

The written analysis report referred to, known as *The Voorhees Pupil Progress Record*, is a monument of painstaking analysis. Each pupil is reported on under the following headings: Social Relationships; Characteristic Qualities; Interest and Effort; Health and Reaction to Physical Stimuli; Interest in and Power to Use Subject Matter; Interest in and Response to the Arts.

Each of these headings has from ten to twenty sub-headings, and each sub-heading is reported on separately.

Reports from School B.

In this case a report sheet is sent out twice a year, and each child is reported on by a mark assigning him a place above or below the average under each of the following headings:—

For Academic Subjects.

1. Thoroughness in preparation of daily work.
2. Sense of responsibility for doing each day's work.
3. Success in remembering facts learned from day to day and in gaining thereby a comprehensive knowledge of the subject.
4. Care in assembling facts and in drawing conclusions from them.
5. Willingness to be constructively critical of

his own work and to expend effort to improve it.

6. Care against errors and checking for errors that may have been made.
7. Effectiveness in grasping instruction given in class (by the cultivation of this quality a pupil can measurably reduce out-of-class work).
8. Habits of sustained effort.
9. Judgment in planning for use of time in daily work.
10. Achievement within this subject.

We are trying to develop students who go ahead with eagerness, zest and intellectual curiosity and outreach in their search for knowledge and understanding.

For Arts and Crafts.

- Native talent or skill in the subject.
- Willingness to do his best work.
- Sense of responsibility for completing each task.
- Judgment and resourceful in planning of time.
- Effectiveness in grasping instruction given in class.
- Care against errors, and checking work for errors that may have been made.
- Care in the use of equipment and supplies of the department.
- Quality of work produced.
- Quantity of work produced.
- Remarks.

For Physical Education.

- Posture { Sitting.
Standing.
Walking.
- Physical Condition.
- Interest in improvement of physical condition.
- Co-operation with the instructor in the work of the department.
- Achievement in {
.....
.....
- Co-operation in team play.
- Courtesy to opponent.
- Modest regard for own achievement.
- Care of athletic clothing and school equipment.
- Remarks.

Reports from School C.

The report forms of this school do not vary materially from those in use in a large number of English schools.

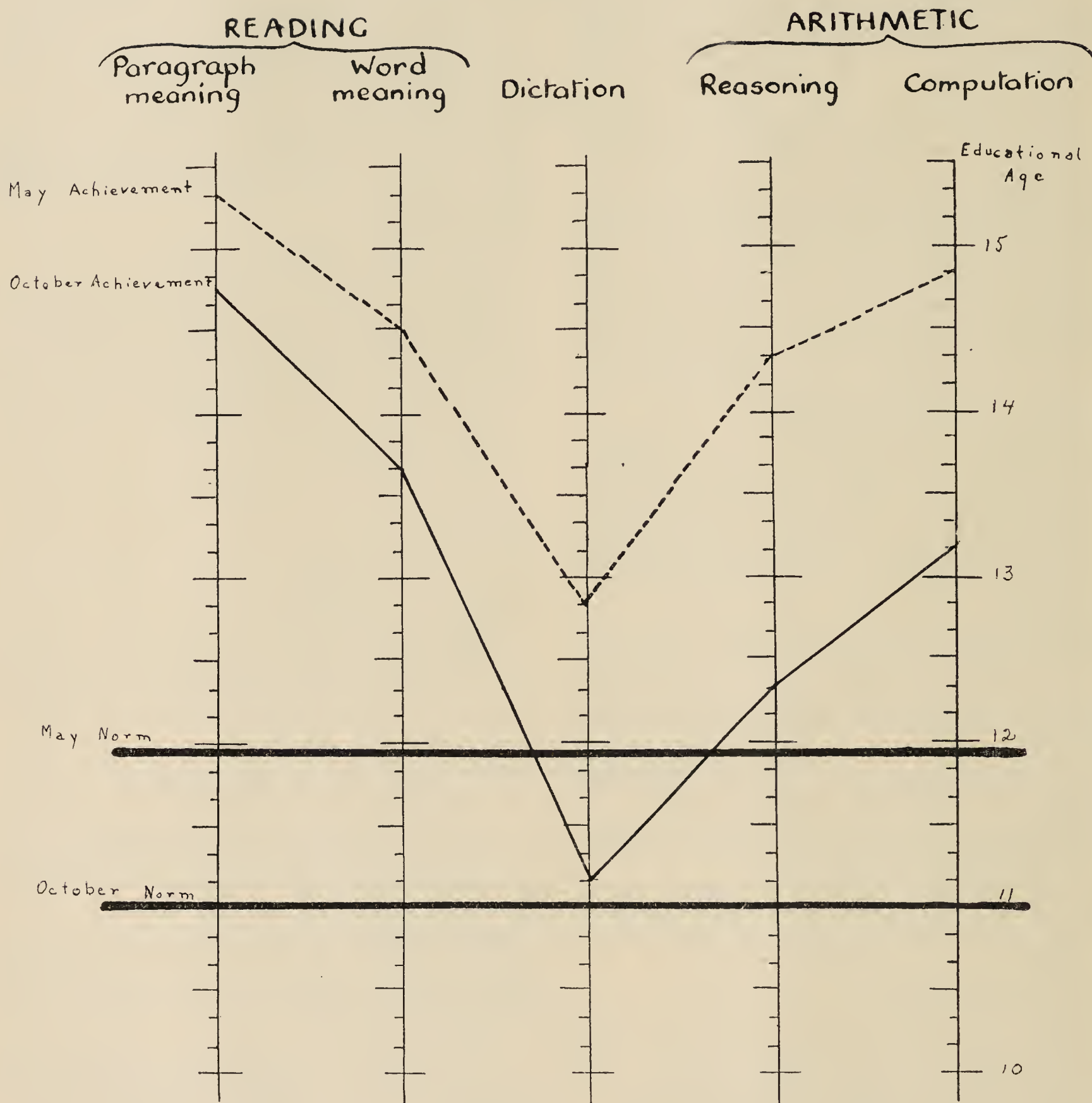
'No marks or letter grades appear on these semi-annual reports to parents. They are intended to give a picture of the child's school life as whole. The comments put more emphasis on evidences of progress and development of the individual child than upon comparisons such as marks. The child's difficulties and *the reasons* for them are carefully pointed out; constructive suggestions are often made to indicate ways the parents can help the school. You will notice that parents are asked not to discuss the reports with the children in the lower grades. Above the fifth grade the children go over the reports with their parents and often with their teachers also

INDIVIDUAL GRAPH

Name _____

Date _____

Teacher _____



This graph is designed to show your child's achievement on the standard tests given in October and May.

The straight lines represent the national standard for the beginning and ending of fifth grade.

The thin black line shows the age equivalents of scores made by your child in each subject in October.

The dotted line shows the age equivalents of scores in each subject in May.

An Individual Graph from School E

By doing this each one should be able to see where the ground for improvement lies, why the improvement is important, and something about how to achieve it.'

Reports from School D.

Instead of the usual rather forbidding acreage of tabulated sheet, this school sends out two neat little booklets in which the child is reported on under a few headings on each page. The booklet contains space for both first and second halves of the school year. One booklet contains the reports on the ordinary academic achievement. The other is entitled *Record of Habits and Attitudes*, and the child is reported on under the headings Responsibility, Integrity, Initiative, Group Spirit, Play Spirit. Here are the Director's remarks on their use.

'The children's reports are carefully made out by the teachers from records which they keep during the year. We do not send these reports into the homes at all, but at the end of each semester invite the parents individually to meet the teachers by appointment and discuss the report with them.

The parents fill out and send in a home report, which is compared with that of the school, and a clear understanding is gained of the child's growth in both school and home. We have found this a most satisfactory method. Of course we use intelligence and achievement tests, though in moderation and merely as indications of development.'

Reports from School E.

This school sends out no written reports to parents at all, relying on individual conferences with parents to secure reporting and co-operation with regard to the child's general development. Instead, an interesting though somewhat elaborate system of graphs is sent out.

Those readers of a mathematical turn of mind can picture for themselves how the corresponding graph for a whole group of children would appear. The school's own explanation of this is worth quoting at length and the plan is deserving of careful study.

'The school sends to parents no written reports of a child's school record. Instead of a report, individual conferences are planned that parents and teachers may discuss intelligently the growth of the whole child. Not only do parents and teachers talk together about the subject matter growth and the reasons for good or poor work, but attention is given to habits of work as shown in the type of intellectual approach, persistence and

thoroughness of attack and manner of completing jobs. The physical condition of the child, emotional reactions, and social adjustments are also discussed. Both home and school profit by an exchange of experience in relation to these different factors in child growth.

Group tests of subject matter are given three times a year. Those in October and May show a measure of growth on similar tests. The tests used are the *New Stamford Achievement Tests* which are extensively used in both the private and state schools of the United States.

In January a diagnostic test is given for analysis of the abilities and weaknesses in the fundamental skills. The results of these tests are shown on individual and class graphs. The individual graphs are given to parents in October. In May a second line is placed on this same individual graph to show growth during the year. In the class graph each child's standing is shown by a number instead of using the child's name. The use of graphs is a means of checking a child's growth in techniques with his own record in relation to the grade norm, rather than in competition with other children. However, the range of subject matter as shown by the group graph is very helpful to the teacher and the psychologist in studying the progress of the school as a whole.'

Reports from School F.

These reports, which go out to parents, call for no special comment except that with the report the school sends out the questionnaire which has guided the teachers' remarks. This contains about half-a-dozen questions under each of the following headings: Responsibility, Initiative, Co-operation, Health Habits, Emotional Adjustments, Work Habits, Consideration of Others, Honesty and Trustworthiness, Personal Habits, Appreciation. The school, however, keeps minute records of children's development and obtains an insight into its home surroundings by asking the parents, on sending a child to the school, to fill in a questionnaire containing nearly seventy detailed questions relating to themselves, the home and the child.

Most of the schools have also sent us an amount of interesting material showing the way in which they keep records of their children's progress for their own purposes apart from the reports which are sent out to the parents. They make considerable use of these in compiling the reports for the parents, but as they do not form part of the subject of this article no reference has been made to them.

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Social Progress through Education—IV

WILLIAM BOYD

IN some respects the most serious obstacle in the way of any advance towards a higher form of social life through education is due to the shortcomings of parents and teachers. Most people get fixed in their main ways of thought and behaviour in the early twenties, if not before, and it is the imperfect personalities thus fixed which are brought to bear on the children under their charge for the rest of their lives and which in the mass form the public opinion that sets the standard of life for children in general. That being so, it would seem that any movement towards the betterment of mankind on the part of the school must inevitably be arrested by the incapacity of people over twenty to make any substantial change in their outlook or habits.

Speech Changes

With regard to this, it is worth noting that some unmistakable changes have actually taken place as a result of schooling in spite of the counter influence of grown-up ways. The most striking case is that of popular speech in a country like Scotland, where the vernacular has been largely displaced by school-learned language. How has this come about? It was made possible by the fact that there was a small body of English speakers in the community who found in the teachers instruments for the inculcation of what they regarded as correct speech. Given that, the pressure of school usage applied with concentration over a number of years was able to overcome the more diffuse habits of home and street. Once the change had been set going it advanced with increasing speed: first, because the children growing up presented more correct models to their own children: second, because the quality of the teachers' speech improved with even greater rapidity than that of the less intelligent community: and third, because there has been increasing opportunity for the use of the new speech in the reading of newspapers and in self-expression through speech in all sorts of meetings.

Cultural Changes

With this obvious case in front of us, it is easier to recognize other social changes which

have come about through education, and also easier to believe that still greater changes can be effected by similar means. There is, for example, the change that has come about in the popular appreciation of music. Here also the school has played a considerable part, but it must share the credit with the church choir and the musical festivals as well as with the gramophone and wireless. Once again we note the background of popular interest and desire, the existence of an expert section becoming more expert, capable of acting as inspirers, directors and teachers, and the sustained compulsion to learn the rudiments during the school years. And once again we note the cumulative effects of the movement triumphing over the inertia of the common folks living on the lower plane. Provided always that the general love of music created by it has sufficient urge in it, there is no reason why music should not ultimately become as intimate a part of the daily life of all civilized people as speech and reading are now and enable us all to live more finely. Since in this process the teaching of the basic methods of music is the element most under control, it is to the schools we must look specially when we set our minds on the attainment of the ideal of the musical nation.

What is true of music is true also of art and literature. The conditions of cultural development are much the same in all these cases, and the results of secondary school teaching over the last quarter century suggest what can be done by means of education. In spite of differences between arts and sciences, the faith in the possibility of cumulative changes in national life through appropriate education may be extended to include science. Arriving at sound conclusions from the available evidence, which is the essence of scientific thinking, is in its way as much of an art as playing a sonata, or drawing a picture, and would seem to require analogous conditions to those favouring musical advancement if it is to become part of the ordinary man's mental equipment. It is not yet so obviously resulting from the teaching of science in the schools, but there does not

seem to be any reason why it should not. And extending the analogy still further, are not morality and religion in similar case? Is there not the same possibility of a cumulative influence in the sphere of human conduct which will ultimately lift mankind to a higher level of life?

Limits to Progress

The social ideal indicated seems to imply unlimited possibilities of progress in all directions on the part of humanity. Three objections might be made: (a) that there is no guarantee that the urge to change in which lies the hope of betterment, will continue indefinitely; (b) that there is not an unlimited capacity for betterment in the community at large in art, literature and the other spiritual concerns; (c) above all, that there seems to be some intractable element in conduct which makes it impossible for people in general to make a moral improvement at all commensurate with the advance made in culture.

The Urge to Change

Regarding the urge that leads men to go on seeking the better, it must be admitted that there seems to be a limit so far as particular races and nations are concerned. But as a matter of fact, there is no sign that the life force is weakening in mankind. The desire for change, which may be progress, is always active somewhere in the world, if not in one people then in another, and never more obviously so than at the present time. There has probably never been such a widespread energizing activity in humanity: witness the situations in America, Asia, and Russia.

The Capacity for Betterment

Regarding the limits of spiritual ability, these must also be recognized as setting bounds to progress, but their effects must not be exaggerated. There are great differences in the musical capacity of the people of any nation, just as presumably there are differences between the musical capacity of the most musical men to-day and the seraphim. Two questions may be asked: first, is there any reason to think that within the limits set by human capacity there are not possibly indefinite opportunities for the development of music (to take one instance), first among the highly musical, and thereafter among the rest of mankind?; and second, is

there any reason to think that in the course of evolution there may not come an increase of inherent capacity which will make the men of the future our superiors in all the spiritual experiences? The answer to the first question, if not to the second, is reassuring enough for all practical purposes. A consideration of the progress made by mankind within historical times gives sufficient encouragement to be going on with. Mankind is still moving forward in the things of the mind and the spirit.

The Intractable Element in Human Conduct

There remains now to be considered the criticism of the Utopian ideal in education, to the effect that, though mankind has made constant progress in science and the arts and in their practical applications, human conduct is not obviously any better than it was three thousand years ago, and gives no sign of being any better three thousand years hence. The contention is debatable, but there is enough in it to make worth facing the possibility that somehow or other mankind is being held up morally and is not to be made better by any process of education, whatever advance may be made in culture.

Two Ways of Stating the Problem of Betterment in Conduct

The problem may be stated in two ways: on the one hand we may find the trouble in the constitution of human nature and account for the chronic ills of society by the fact that through all changes man remains the same lustful self-assertive brute who cannot help fighting with his fellows and descending periodical into bestial living. On the other hand, we may find the cause of the trouble in some defect in the art of living which mankind has been evolving through the ages for the control of its primitive dispositions to self-assertion and lust. It certainly is a strange circumstance that one generation of musicians seems to be able to pass on the art to the next generation in a way that leads to a progressive development, whereas successive generations of moral-living persons seem to fail in passing on this art. What is there peculiar about conduct that we cannot account for the difference?

The Two Solutions

On the view that it is human nature that is at fault, the solution might be found

committing the education of the young to an institution like the Church, whose standpoint, broadly speaking, this is. The objection to that course is that the Church has had control of the schools for a good many centuries and has not been able through its teaching to make an end of vices and wars or even to effect any considerable improvement in ordinary human behaviour. The other-worldly Church does not seem to have any power to lend for the accomplishment of our secular ideals. On the second view, the view that there is something deeply wrong in our way of life, the solution is to be sought in some peculiarity of conduct which, if removable, requires to be removed, possibly by educational contrivance. The analytic psychologies originating in the practice of psycho-analysis perhaps give the clue to be followed. The guiding idea is that underlying human conduct are certain unconscious impulses different from, and sometimes antagonistic to, the moral ideas commonly supposed to determine behaviour. On this view the reason for the failure of mankind to make moral progress is to be found in the fact that parents and teachers have all along been trying to influence the young through a conscious morality and neglecting the unconscious motivations in themselves and in their children that went far to neutralize their efforts.

The Need for Re-education

It might seem on first thoughts that there is no way of escape from the biases which are imparted in childhood and go on perpetuating themselves. But this hopeless view fails to take account of the important fact that these biases are actually modified, and in some cases eliminated, through the discipline of life. The psycho-analyst does this by a special technique in cases of serious disturbances. In effect, he re-educates the patient by helping him to find a more satisfactory expression for his emotional nature. The extension of this idea is that to supplement the imperfect reduction of the stresses and strains achieved in ordinary life everybody should undergo a process of re-education, preferably in late adolescence, in order to get free from biases due to upbringing by biased people. Is this practicable?

The obvious difficulty is that the most essential re-education is that of the parents,

and the parents are not very accessible people. What we are asking is that the father and mother should somehow be led to change their own characters in order that they should manage their children better. There is no direct way of getting that done, but indirectly some change is being brought about in a good many homes by new ideas concerning the upbringing of children. Parents are coming more and more to realize the advantages of a wise passiveness in dealing with their family and to attach more importance to a well ordered environment than to express commands and prohibitions; and in so far as they are employing these better methods in place of the old coercive methods, they are gradually re-educating themselves. In time we may hope for a growing body of public sentiment which will change the ideas controlling family relations, much as popular ideas about open windows and clean teeth are being changed. The rise in the level of general education makes this indirect personal education easier to effect.

The Education of the Teacher

The part that the teacher plays in the production of prejudice and bias is less fundamental than that of the parents, but is still very considerable, since the biases created by the home can be modified for good or evil by the school; but the difficulty of getting the teacher re-educated to some extent is not so great, though it is great enough in all conscience. Again, there can be no question of an individual treatment on psycho-analytic lines. But the indirect forces that determine the teacher's attitude and habits can be more easily controlled in the interests of good living. In the first place, it is possible by proper instruction in mental hygiene to show the teacher how to recognize and to moderate wrong states of mind in himself and his pupils. In the second place, it is possible by an increase of freedom in the schools to encourage a social atmosphere in which the dispositions produced by bad upbringing will be gradually relaxed. A beginning has been made in both respects, not great indeed, but enough to show what can be done once mankind is prepared to undertake the shaping of its destinies with serious purpose and determination.

An Educational Experiment in the use of Leisure

A. K. C. OTTAWAY

THE more progressive schools of this country have been for some time concerned with the problem of how much leisure or free-time to allow their pupils. While it is true that real education should give that sense of freedom that makes the classroom occupations as interesting and worth while as those of the play-room, nevertheless, there is a difference between the two, which is largely due to the inevitable influence of the teacher during class time. The children in a school need time that they can devote entirely to their own ends, and which allows them the maximum of self-activity not under the control or direct suggestion of an adult. But leisure time can be spent in two ways: either alone or in a group. We limit ourselves in this article to the group or social use of leisure.

The Social Use of Leisure

Let us now consider exactly what we mean by the social use of leisure. We mean the existence of group activities, organized on the initiative of individual members of such groups, which would allow the pursuit of cultural and artistic interests, the release of hidden talent, and the free exercise of abilities fostered in the class-room, while at the same time developing a sense of mutual helpfulness and comradeship. The intelligent and profitable use of leisure on the lines here indicated does not come all at once, but has to be learnt by experience, and children cannot do this unless they have the encouragement and opportunity. The experiment here described consisted in abolishing the evening preparation period entirely, and replacing it each day by a period of social recreation and leisure, which was called the 'Social Hour'. The 'Social Hour' was organized by the boys themselves, and the only suggestion made to them was that it should be used primarily for group activities such as Clubs, Societies, Discussion Groups, Acting, Music, Craftwork, etc. A complete list of the social groups that sprang into existence, with a description of their aims as given by the organizers themselves, is given in tabular form.

A. Activities Based on Existing School Work

- (i) Senior Dramatic Club—To rehearse and produce a play by Bernard Shaw.
- (ii) Junior Dramatic Club—To rehearse and produce a play by A. A. Milne.
- (iii) The Critics Club—To discuss and criticize any non-political subject.
- (iv) Political Society—To discuss and debate modern social problems and forms of government.
- (v) Scientific Society—To perform interesting yet serious experiments and to make boys interested in the subject.

B. Extensions of the Existing School Hobbies

- (i) Handwork—Baskets, rugs, leather work, papier mâché, lino-cuts, book-binding, picture framing.
- (ii) Printing—Work on the School Press including programmes and notices for other societies and to print a magazine.
- (iii) Drawing Society—Design and water colour, ultimately to include poster work and advertising.
- (iv) Gymnastic Society—Use of Gymnastic apparatus, etc.

C. Activities Based on Care of the Estate

- (i) Horticultural Society—To draw boys into the interests of flower gardening and the use of hot-houses, and the growth of vegetables.
- (ii) Society for the Extermination of Vermin—To rid the estate of moles and rats.

D. Activities Whose Main Object is Amusement

- (i) Wireless Groups, (ii) Cinema Club, (iii) Games of Skill Club, (iv) Senior Bridge Club, (v) Conjuring Society, (vi) Stamp Collecting.

Each boy was free to join as many activities as he could fit in during the week. If two meetings in which he was interested took place on the same evening, he had to choose which one he would attend. Most boys tended to join as many groups as possible, though some concentrated their efforts on one or two. Although the organization was carried out by the boys it does not follow that the masters did

nothing. Their function was to watch out for idlers, and for anti-social behaviour, and to attend meetings of Societies if they were members. Various private activities went on. For instance, boys with definite responsibilities in the school, such as those in charge of the school bank or bicycle shed, might devote some of their evening time to their duties. It was interesting to note that boys in the School Certificate examination class often preferred preparation to leisure, so as to be well up in their work. This was allowed, and certain others spent their time in reading for their English class work. Any fears that this increase in freedom would cause idling or waste of time were proved to be groundless, and indeed it was noticed by all that the Social Hour was a period remarkable for abounding life and the exercise of individual initiative.

Some Results

First, there were the more direct and obvious results illustrated by the shows and exhibitions given in the last week of term. One evening was allotted to each Group, and it had to show the rest of the school what it could do. The social events included two Dramatic Performances, a Conjuring Display, a Scientific Demonstration, and a Sale of Moleskins. During the week the Press published a Review called 'The Social Hour' which gave a brief record of all the new activities.

Second, there was a marked display of initiative by the boys. Many revealed hidden powers of leadership that they were not known to possess, others showed strong individual tastes in their choice of activity. This was accompanied by a general feeling of release. It appeared to be the element of freedom that was responsible for the emergence of so many forms of self-expression. Each boy had been given the chance of directing his energies along whatever path his interest led him to choose. Interest became the only motive for activity, and feeling himself free to do what he really wanted, each boy acted with a spontaneity that can only come from genuine self-actuated effort.

A third result of the experiment was the improvement in their conduct in class shown by certain old offenders. Since mis-

chievous and anti-social behaviour can often be put down to repression, it seems likely that energy misdirected in the class-room was enabled to flow along useful and more profitable channels in the periods of leisure. This is an example of the general psychological process of sublimation, and several individual cases are quoted. This re-direction of energy along useful channels, together with the release and development of personality already referred to, were probably jointly responsible for an increased spirit of social co-operation that had its effect throughout all the life of the school.

Fourthly, we have to consider the more definite links that were freely made between class work and leisure time activities. If this correlation is genuine, it illustrates the very important principle that much more individual freedom might be given in ordinary classes which, far from leading to waste of time, would on the contrary give rise to really self-directed work. In fact the whole distinction between work and play tends to disappear when boys find out that they can do just as important things on their own initiative, as under the control of the master. The best evidence of this was provided by the Literary and Dramatic Societies. For example, the Critics Club was conducted with all the seriousness of an English class. Excellent minutes were kept, unwanted visitors were excluded, and any lack of respect for the chairman was dealt with severely. Again the play rehearsals were held under the ruthless commands of the respective producers, and the hierarchy of stage hands worked with businesslike precision. Moreover, the performances, entirely unaided by any of the staff, were carried through with confidence, and revealed understanding of character and much individual talent. Further evidence of serious work is given by the proceedings of the Scientific Society, who were allowed full use of the laboratories (with certain restrictions on poisonous chemicals). Certain junior members quite naturally showed most interest in smells and pyrotechnics, but it is to be hoped that they were thus able to satisfy a curiosity which in future may manifest itself less during ordinary school hours. On the other hand, the senior members, working with textbooks of their own selection, were



Members of the Guilds at work in the Beaver Country Day School

able to make enough advanced experiments to cause the science master some concern lest they should complete their next year's syllabus before the time.

Some Individual Cases

Lastly, definite psychological changes were observed in individual cases a few of which are quoted.

A boy about 13 years old had been a nuisance to his teachers, chiefly because (a) he would play with all sorts of gadgets and contrivances, and was always doing sleight of hand with articles behind his desk; (b) he even let off stink bombs during preparation, and (c) he read detective thrillers instead of doing his assignments. Now he is a completely reformed character because (a2) he is President of the Conjuring Society; (b2) he makes the most stinking and exciting experiments in the Scientific Society, and (c2) he played the part of Chief Villain in the Junior Dramatic show and carried three revolvers.

A second boy had co-operated with his friend in obtaining stink bombs for illegitimate use. At the chemical demonstration he was

the organizer of an experiment for changing the colour of a large painted cardboard animal by placing it in an atmosphere of sulphuretted hydrogen. This animal possibly represented the master he previously worried with stink bombs.

Then there was a boy about 16, the only son of parents who encourage his rather eccentric views and let him become very independent and even unsocial. He had a habit of rather crude and adverse criticism of boys and institutions. At the Literary Club he not only made an excellent speech in favour of modern architecture, but on that, and on other occasions, when his eccentric ideas came into open debate, he was made to see another point of view and to tone down his own.

Another boy of 16 was rather arrested in physical development and given to day-dreaming and gossiping. By the use of a glib tongue and with a hidden desire to be efficient, he got himself elected Secretary of two different Societies, and his official duties caused him to make constant struggles to convert his thoughts into action. He has consequently gained considerably in self-confidence and is

becoming more fit to accept responsibility.

One boy, owing to his remarkable intelligence, was as much as three years younger than some of the boys in his class, and was therefore looked on with some suspicion and kept under by the rest. As a result he became over-intellectualized and introverted. The social activities gave him the chance to redress the balance, and he promptly became a leader over much older boys in whatever he undertook, producing the junior play, and acting as announcer at the Scientific Demonstrations.

Yet another boy revealed a tremendous interest in hunting and trapping moles, and he would get up at six in the morning to see to his traps, and spent his leisure time curing the skins. This need of his nature could not have had proper outlet before.

In conclusion, this brief article can be summed up as an attempt to show that the use of leisure time can be made a really vital factor in the social life of a school, and can contribute much to the development of free, spontaneous, and self-controlled minds, which is one of the aims of all real education.

The author of the above article is very anxious to find out how other schools, and particularly New Schools, are attacking this problem of the use of leisure. It is hoped that Headmasters and other teachers in such schools might be willing to co-operate. The following few questions show the kind of information that is of importance, and any teachers interested are invited to communicate with the author through the *New Era*.

Skeleton Questionnaire on the Use of Leisure

- (1) How much leisure or free-time is given in your school?
- (2) Do you make any distinction between the social use of leisure (e.g. societies or clubs, etc.) and the individuals' free-time?
- (3) To what extent do the boys tend to form groups on their own, or how much direct suggestion do they require from an adult?
- (4) Have you any census of leisure activities, or any way of showing the relative popularity of different occupations?
- (5) Have you noticed any definite cases of boys who show more initiative or leadership in their spare time than under direct control of an adult?
- (6) Have you noticed any definite cases of boys who, when given more free-time, have in consequence improved in behaviour or achievement during regular class hours?

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The Changing Curriculum—I

Social Studies : Methods of Work—II

F. C. HAPPOLD

IN the May number of the *New Era*, we considered methods of work appropriate to the first two years of a Social Studies Course. Boys and girls trained in this way will be found ready, during their third year, to make a careful and effective study of the age in which they live. One school of thought, particularly popular in the United States, would dismiss from the curriculum everything which is not primarily concerned with an understanding of our own age and this work would be begun at a much earlier age than is advocated in these articles. It is true that the study of our own age may be attempted early in the school course, but followers of the English tradition would probably agree that it can be better undertaken if it is deferred to a rather later stage and preceded by work rather more formal if not less interesting to the child. Moreover, the devoting of the earlier years to gaining some sort of background and to carefully graded training in the use of tools enables the pupil to commence this all-important study with some hope of doing really good and efficient work.

Social Studies and the School Certificate Examination

The teacher in the Secondary School may object to this type of work at this stage of the school career. His objection will probably take the following form: 'In the fourth or fifth year of a pupil's school life the School Certificate Examination must be taken. How can I spare time at this stage for studies, real and valuable though I acknowledge them to be, when my pupils must shortly take an examination which is not concerned with these things?' It will probably be found, however, that if proper care is taken, the sort of Social Studies course described below is an excellent preparation for the School Certificate, and that the boys and girls so trained are better ready to tackle the more formal work demanded by the School Certificate examiners than those prepared on more orthodox lines.

The moment one attempts to work out a scheme of studies which shall explain our own age and the world in which we live, it becomes obvious that the old subject divisions must disappear. Suppose we are studying the present crisis in Manchuria. We must first know where Manchuria is; we must know something of its geographical characteristics, of its racial problems, its population and its economic resources. We must study the relations of China and Japan in the past, the history of Russia and the Russian advance in the Far East, and not only the advance of Russia, but of the Western Powers as well. We shall, sooner or later, be forced to study the growth of communications, of trade and commerce, and of the financing of the more backward races by European financiers. Nearly every modern

problem has historical, geographical, economic and ethnological elements necessary for its understanding which cannot be separated one from the other.

How then shall we proceed? We may take a number of modern problems, the Nazi movement in Germany, Italian Fascism, the Five-Year Plan in Russia, unemployment, etc., and study them in all their aspects. Some will demand historical surveys which will carry us back a century or more; some will demand a study of maps and geographical factors; others for their fuller understanding will demand some instruction in economic ideas and terms. Alternatively, we may combine, specially in the first term of the year, the study of modern problems with some rather more formal chronological surveys of the history of the chief countries we shall have to consider. This is a useful plan if the pupil has not previously read much modern history. These brief surveys should, however, be carefully designed to lead up to and explain present conditions.

Group Work

Methods of work may be as varied as possible. Problems may be surveyed by the teacher and discussed by the class. Groups or individuals may work up problems and lecture to their companions on the results of their researches. It is a useful plan to divide a class into groups each of which will be responsible for the day by day collection of material on some special country or topic and for each group to report periodically to the rest. Interesting and valuable notebooks can be made by individuals and files of pictures and newspaper cuttings can be prepared and stored in cabinets for reference purposes. These files can be built up year by year until gradually a whole mass of information is available for study.

Social Studies Equipment

It is a strange thing that no one expects the Science master to teach efficiently without a laboratory, nor does one suggest that the gymnastic instructor should go round from classroom to classroom, while the Art master demands an art room. Yet it is often assumed that all the Social Studies teacher requires is a blackboard, some chalk and a big voice.

Every school should possess a Social Studies room, with its appropriate equipment of books, charts, maps and filing cabinets. In it there should be a big chart showing the growth of Western Civilization, and other charts depicting the development of transport, science, literature, architecture, and so on, so that, while the pupil is studying some modern problem, he has only to raise his eyes to visualize his problem in the light of the past. Let there be a great frieze of maps so that by simply looking along the wall the boy may see the world throughout the

ges. Let there also be statistical tables in vivid diagrammatic form, such as those prepared by the Vienna Mundaneum, boards for changing exhibitions of pictures, and collections illustrating modern industrial processes.

Nor need our third year of Social Studies confine itself to the more obvious political and economic problems of our age. It is our object to train thinking, critical citizens. All the elements of our modern civilization must in a greater or lesser degree be included in our survey. Advertisements may be collected and their appeal—the group convention appeal, the snob appeal, the fear appeal—may be examined. Town and regional planning, with some field work, may be considered. The cinema, an

important form of modern art, is worthy of careful study. Let discussions be held on the pictures shown at the local cinema and let the boys and girls be encouraged to discuss their merits and demerits, and so learn something of film technique. Specimen extracts, good and bad, from newspapers should be read and the influence of the press surveyed. Much valuable information will be found in *Culture and Environment* by Leavis and Thompson, (Chatto and Windus, 3s. 6d.). Such studies can be made to lead logically and inevitably to a consideration of what one means by good taste and so to appreciation of verse, to the study of poetic form and technique, of rightness in prose writing and the love of the best in literature, art and life.

The Changing Curriculum—II

The Teaching of English : Composition

J. COMPTON

WRITTEN COMPOSITION

Composition Through Reading

NEARLY all schemes for teaching the young to write, devised during the last ten years, have been based on the idea of teaching composition through reading. They have been inspired by a passage of Stevenson's in which he says that he played 'the sedulous ape' to many masters and that when he found anything he liked, he set himself to copy it. The value of this precedent is questionable, since, to quote Professor Saintsbury, 'It is a common-place now that only towards the end of his too short life was he on the point of acquiring a style perfectly natural, free and his own'.

While the principle of learning to write through reading has its value, it has also its fundamental weaknesses. For a boy or girl to try and write like Hazlitt or Addison is nonsense; yet owing to the apparent simplicity of their style, these authors are frequently chosen as models. The boy or girl simply tries to copy their way of writing, which is not imitation in the true Aristotelian sense, but mere mimicry. Unfortunately, too, it is always easier to copy the bad than the good. The child does not think of style as the very heart and core of writing, but as a superficial adornment. He looks for the tricks and tries to copy them, whereas we want him to be simple, direct and honest.

Teaching Composition as a Craft

The teacher of composition has three main tasks: he must teach the child to write simple and correct English; he must give him a taste for straightforward English and an aversion for jargon and bombast; and he must watch for native talent and help it to develop.

Composition should be taught not as an art, but as a craft. There should be no place for literary artifices. The child must learn to handle a pen in the same way as he would learn to handle a chisel—he must know what he is about and he must be precise and exact.

If a boy has nothing to say in wood, he will never make a carpenter; if he has nothing to say in words, he will never make a writer. The essential and basic aim in teaching composition must be to discover what the child has to say and then to enable him to say it.

Observation as the Foundation of Composition

A good training in English must also be a good training in observation. We can train a boy to observe even if we cannot give him linguistic power. Careful observation of things seen and the subsequent description of them should therefore be the foundation of early composition.

Original Composition

The possibilities of the five minute essay have not yet been fully explored. It teaches the child to put down the first idea which enters his head. The old theory taught as a divinely appointed fact that a composition must have a Beginning, a Middle and an End. The five minutes essay makes the child plunge into the middle at once. The ordinary child, faced with the problem of writing an essay in 35 or 40 minutes, will fumble for some striking opening sentence and never come to the point at all. When the time is limited to five minutes, he is forced to write down quickly all he knows about the subject; and quick writing does not necessarily mean careless writing. Many journalists, for instance, turn out lucid, admirably written articles at great speed.

The average child, confronted with a topic, a pen and a sheet of paper, bunches up his muscles so that he is mentally and physically tense. But no writer has ever written well except when spirit, mind and even pen, all moved easily. Before children start to write, they should be comfortably relaxed—a friendly talk or a joke will often remove the tension.

Very few children realize that an idea grows in the mind while you are writing or speaking; yet a

sentence may grow and change as it is being spoken or written. For this reason, I do not advocate the consistent and regular use of a preliminary scheme. A 'plan' may be useful to clear the mind about the shape of the essay, but it should be discarded directly it ceases to fit the growing idea.

It is now generally agreed that the subjects set should be concrete, understandable and attractive, and it is a good plan to give a backward class a lead. Give them the first sentence; but see that it is a lively and provocative one which will suggest a whole set of pictures. In composition children must learn to gather together all their odd bits of knowledge and all their impressions and then to arrange them in a proper and pleasing sequence. Selection and arrangement are purely matters of technique and can be taught, but the child must also learn to visualize clearly and to grasp the importance of detail. The difference between a good and a bad, a live and a dead, composition very often lies in the use made of detail: accurate observation gives a suggestion of vitality that vague generalization can never give.

Vocabulary

There is a whole range of half-ideas which the child cannot express; and this is the domain which it is most interesting to explore, but in which it is most important to recognize the limitations of vocabulary. Dr. Montessori came up against this difficulty in teaching small children: she has found, for instance, that mathematical operations are quite simple if we do not attempt to explain the process in words. But very young children can do square and cube roots with apparatus. In fact, we are constantly faced with this inability to find words: the most significant moments in life are those for which we have no words. There is a whole range of meanings and ideas for which only the very skilled person can find a vocabulary. When we come into the child's world of half-ideas, it is essential that we should recognize it and abandon any attempt to make children find words when words do not exist for them.

The Stimulus of an Audience

The child at school will find his incentive for good speech and writing in the stimulus that comes from a good audience. He should feel that it is his business to interest that audience, which, as far as composition is concerned, consists of his teacher. It is the teacher's business to handle his work so that it is valued according to the interest aroused. If the child realizes that he is writing for somebody, the exercise ceases to be purely academic and gains a reality which the old type of composition had not, for the criterion by which it is judged applies to every writer, whatever his status.

ORAL COMPOSITION

If an oral composition lesson is dull, there is something wrong, and no manual of *Teachers' Aids* will help, for they merely deal with an artificial situation, whereas the teacher is out to employ the resources and vitality of real human contacts. In teaching this subject, we have to beware of the desiccated and

sterile conversation—reminiscent of the old-fashioned French exercise—which is so often called oral composition. It is a pity that we cannot forget that it belongs to the English Syllabus and teach it in the craft rooms.

No satisfactory technique has so far been evolved yet all manuals stress the importance of class discussion. But what we want is not a formal discussion which has hardly started before it has dried up, but an easy, natural conversation. And this is no easy thing to contrive with a class of forty. No method will guarantee that an able and stimulating teacher with an average class will produce exhilarating, helpful and instructive talk, in which all the members of the class participate, at a moment's notice.

The Dramatic Method

The dramatic method has not yet been fully tested. If we had a better knowledge of miming, we should be nearer the solution, for miming produces speech-release as the result of easy body movements. Any child who is formally and directly asked to discuss something will find it very difficult to do so unless he is an unpleasantly loquacious creature. But put him into the body of someone else and there is an amazing difference. Arrange a street scene, for instance, with cabdrivers, policemen and so on, and then hear the gabble. But it must be directed gabble; there must be a central incident, and careful preparation is essential. But by the dramatic method it is possible to get that release which is the essence of an easy conversation.

Lecturettes and debates are devices which are sometimes useful, but though they may be valuable for bright children, they are not nearly so effective with average children and quite worthless for dull ones. Debates have their dangers; personally, I do not find the art of debating wholly admirable. It tends to give children the impression that what you say is less important than how you say it, and that it is better to score verbally than to say what you mean.

CORRECTIONS

Corrections should always be constructive. Lately teachers have adopted an elaborate code of symbols which has obvious advantages and equally obvious disadvantages. It gives the impression of a mathematical scrutiny—not of the friendly interest of a friendly reader. Personally, I am not convinced that there can be any scale for marking compositions except in large scale examinations when this kind of computation is clearly necessary.

Revisions and corrections should be done in short periods and they should never intrude upon the time belonging to an original exercise, for they are never as important as a first writing.

DICTATION

This can be an extremely useful exercise if it is not confined to pure spelling, but is taken as a test of memory and intelligence as well. The passage should have intrinsic interest and it should be read once only.

PARAPHRASE

The old indiscriminating type of paraphrase was senseless, but it is useful to make a child express the meaning of a passage in his own words—provided that it is a prose passage, or at any rate, not great poetry.

PRECIS

This also has its value, for it is essential that the child should learn to summarize. It is a first-rate test of intelligence provided the matter is within the child's comprehension.

LETTERS

Letter writing is clearly useful, though we do not as a rule distinguish sufficiently between the formal and the informal. All letters should satisfy one test: they should read like a piece of good talk. There are two different kinds of talk—talk to an employer or a customer and talk at one's own fireside. Even the formal letter corresponds to the first kind, and if we remember this, we shall be able to save the child from the business man's worst jargon. Most people

who dictate letters in stereotyped phrases do so to save trouble, but the typist who can write a good letter from a few instructions will never be without a job.

GRAMMAR

In the senior school, the pupils should know the parts of speech and be able to analyse a sentence; but this will not help them to avoid grammatical errors. A boy does not start saying 'you were' instead of 'you was' until he comes to employ the correct locution by habit. Conversation at school should teach children to use the correct speech form as a matter of habit, and then they will have a background of grammar to account for the difference between speech in the school and speech in the streets.

Speech is most virile when it casts its nets wide and draws phrases out of the flotsam and jetsam of everyday life. It is not our business to try and perpetuate outworn speech forms though we should try and eradicate vicious innovations. We should teach children to use words with accuracy and care, and we need be less afraid of slang than of the devitalized and pseudo-literary forms of spoken English.

International Notes

FELLOWSHIP NEWS**World Fellow Teas**

At the World Fellow Teas during May, talks were given by the following: Mr. V. L. Griffiths of the Soudan, Mr. Paul Abbatt on 'Toys and the Child's Development,' Mrs. Mary Adams on 'Education and Broadcasting,' and Dr. Zwi Sohar of Poland on 'Handwork in the Polish Schools'. The hostesses were: Mrs. A. J. Lynch, Mrs. Susan Platt and Mrs. G. S. Hartley.

Tea is served every Friday from 4.30 to 6 p.m. at 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1. A short talk is followed by informal discussion. Members, their friends and all who are interested are welcome.

Headquarters Reference Library

We now have in the reference library at Headquarters a list of the best courses of study that have appeared in the different school systems of the United States during the year 1931-1932. This list has been compiled by the Curriculum Laboratory of Teachers College, Columbia University, and the courses registered have been carefully evaluated. They cover elementary, junior and senior high schools. We strongly recommend that all those who are trying to modify the curriculum of their schools should consult those courses of study listed which seem applicable to their needs. They can each be ordered from the Superintendent of Schools of the locality producing the course. The list will be kept up to date.

Bureau of School Films

The N.E.F. is planning to collect in one central bureau films of interesting work in different types

of schools. It is felt that it would be a great convenience if a number of films could be housed in and loaned from one centre and a list of films available issued. Will schools, in any country, that would like further details of this plan write to *The New Education Fellowship (Films)*, 29 Tavistock Square, London W.C.1.

Polish Section

The Polish Section of the Fellowship organized in March a four days course given by Professor Piaget on '*L'Education Sociale de l'Enfant*'. Similar courses were also given in the Universities of Warsaw, Cracow and Poznan. Mr. Herren, Professor at Prague, will also visit Poland at the invitation of the Polish Section of the N.E.F.

Scandinavian Conference

The N.E.F. Scandinavian Conference will be held at Lillehammer, Norway, from August 3rd to 8th inclusive. The registration fee is 10 kronor.

The programme will include lectures and discussions on educational psychology; courses of study and the choice of content; group teaching and the delimitation of subjects; examinations.

Further particulars may be obtained from Mrs. Anna Sethne, Sagenes Skole, Oslo.

OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST**Holiday Camps in Austria and Germany**

According to the *Ecole Libératrice*, of the 200,000 francs that the French state teachers' organization induced the *Confédération Générale du Travail*

to grant to the children of the unemployed in Germany and Austria last year, 90,000 francs were spent on holiday camps which were known as 'children's republics'. These camps provided the children with a healthy, co-operative life making for peace and international understanding.

The success of these camps in France has been so great that the *Amis de l'Enfance Ouvrière* have set up a committee of representatives of the C.G.T. and of the Socialist party to found an organization which will provide children with an education appropriate to the 'working' class. Basing their ideas in part on the statements made at the Nice Conference of the *N.E.F.*—that the child must be initiated into social life—they wish to extend this privilege to proletarian children. Courses for the training of young enthusiasts who are willing to undertake this work have been organized. The aims of this education are to promote health, a scientific unbiassed attitude of mind, and an understanding of the causes of social injustice and of the fellowship of the peoples of the world.

An International Community Project

During the last few months, new life has sprung up in 'Chinatown', London, in the form of a Community Project of practical international co-operation for the patriotic Chinese labourers, their motherly English wives and their lively, international children. The work of existing English or Chinese Organizations is being co-ordinated and there are now the following bodies:—

1. Fathers' Meetings, Mothers' Meetings, monthly.

2. Chung Hwa Night School, 3 evenings per week.

3. Chung Hwa Club, 3 evenings per week (for children over 14).

4. Chinese Children's Club, 1 evening per week (for younger children).

5. Vocational Guidance for School Leavers.

6. Weekly, Quarterly or Periodical printed matter concerning the work supplied regularly to Mothers, Chinese Readers at home and abroad as well as to friends interested in China and internationally minded people.

The aim is to base the work on a modern, scientific international foundation and it grows naturally out of the felt needs of each group. Guidance, encouragement and support is being received from all quarters especially from the community itself, English educators and the Chinese professional, business and student classes in London. The ultimate aim is to help these children to develop into healthy, happy, well adjusted human beings with a sound philosophy of life and a broad international outlook.

After this project has had some time to develop, encouragement will be given to similar communities in other parts of England and Europe and other parts of the world through correspondence or personal contact, and it is hoped that similar or better results may be obtained elsewhere. Suggestions, interest and encouragement will be heartily welcomed. Communications should be addressed to Miss Tsi-Dzi Irene Ho, c/o *The New Era*.

Book Reviews

The Home of Mankind. *Written and pictured by Hendrik Van Loon.* (Harrap. 12s. 6d.)

Mr. Van Loon tells us that he keeps most of the standard geographies on his desk, 'and they are a subject of constant delight. Not that they are particularly amusing reading. Geography is not supposed to be a very amusing subject'.

This is not quite fair to some of his predecessors in the field of human geography. Probably—most probably—the books on his desk are the standard works of reference, the geographical encyclopedias. He needed them there for his statistics. The amusingness he could put in for himself. All the same, I am pretty sure he has read—and read to good purpose—the works of James Fairgrieve and Ellen Semple and several other people who have done their far from inconsiderable bit to make geography humanly interesting by treating the earth, as Mr. Van Loon does, primarily as the home of Mankind.

That is to say, he is not the first human being, as distinct from mere pedagogue, who has burst into the arid sea of geographical data. But *The Home of Mankind* amply justifies his own incursion. Most emphatically he makes his geography, in the best sense of the word, *amusing*. And since (as I gather) the modern teacher has discovered that unless one is

amusing one is ineffective, this book will be of enormous interest to teachers.

It is, of course, mixed geography and history. (I say 'of course' because it is obvious at this time of day that the two cannot be separated.) Its style is just the easy colloquial-conversational one which is the very best medium for getting across one's ideas to non-specialists. It has the defects of that style—an occasional 'jumpiness' which whizzes one backward or forward through the centuries in rather breath-taking fashion. There is an occasional over-statement, or over-simplification. To say, for instance, of the Soviet experiment, that 'Karl Marx and Genghis Khan have joined forces to bring about the millenium' does not seem to me really to go very deep. And a chapter on Africa which does not even mention the special problem of white settlement and its repercussions on Africans can hardly be considered a satisfactory introduction to the Africa of to-day. Sometimes, too, one feels the strain of Mr. Van Loon being bright at all costs. For example, his opening 'parable' (and frontispiece)—about the possibility of packing the entire human race into a box half a mile square, and tipping it into the Grand Canyon of Arizona, and the Canyon carrying on as usual—seems, despite the unexceptionable moral of it, a

little tit-bitty. Occasionally, also, a picture or a map strikes one as being done in a new way, not because that way is better than any of the old ones, but because Mr. Van Loon was just determined to be different. The more or less conventional map of the Gulf Stream on p. 58 seems to me much more satisfyingly explanatory than the coffee-pot diagram on p. 56.)

But having said all this, let me hasten to insist with you on the number of perfectly apt similes, apposite comments, and fascinatingly new maps, which this volume contains. In the narrow sense, there is nothing new in it. But the freshness that Mr. Van Loon gets into his handling of the old familiar material will be envied—and, let us hope, copied—by every teacher. The simplicity of his little experiment with the six handkerchiefs on the table, to illustrate the folding of the earth's surface: the phrase about navigation in the pre-compass days—'sailing by the sound of the dogs barking along the shore': the sudden topicality, after a discussion of the coastline, rivers, etc., of the continent of Europe, of a sentence like—'this fortunate arrangement was of tremendous help in making Europe the richest and therefore the dominant centre of our planet until the disastrous and suicidal war of 1914-18 made her lose that enviable position': the line about the Basques—'they are excellent fishermen and sailors and iron-workers, and they mind their own business and keep off the front page of the newspapers': or the charming denial of any pretensions to omniscience manifest in such passages as that concluding a paragraph on the bitter feeling between Flemings and Walloons in Belgium—'There must be a reason for this difference, but I for one am willing to confess that it surpasses my understanding',—all are admirable.

And when he is in form—which is mostly!—Mr. Van Loon's maps and illustrations are both amusing and informing. The four historical and ethnographical maps of Africa on p. 413 are triumphs of condensation, as are his simplified 'cubist' sketch-maps of various countries. The two coloured maps of 'How Japan was Made' are brilliantly effective; so is the little super-imposed map of Scandinavia and Alaska, under-lined 'And the Gulf Stream did it'. Such pictures as 'The Old Japan' and 'The New Japan' provide effective emphasis to the moral he is enunciating in his text.

What of the general moral of the book?—for a book on human geography must have some sort of moral, Socialist or Capitalist, Imperialist or Pacifist. Mr. Van Loon is uniformly on the side of the angels. He is a fervent internationalist. He puts in capital letters his conviction that '*WE ARE ALL FELLOW-PASSENGERS ON THE SAME PLANET, AND WE ARE ALL EQUALLY RESPONSIBLE FOR THE HAPPINESS AND WELL-BEING OF THE WORLD IN WHICH WE HAPPEN TO LIVE*'. He is definitely anti-Imperialist—If *Homo Sapiens* is unable or unwilling to assert himself as the master of all he surveys, there are thousands of other candidates for the job, and it oftentimes seems as if a world dominated by cats and dogs or elephants or some of the more highly-

organized insects might offer very decided advantages over a planet top-heavy with battleships and siege-guns.' He is reasonable and balanced about Russia; and very sound about 'Race maniacs'. Yet even he heads his forty-sixth (and longest) chapter—'America, the Most Fortunate of All'. A little sop to the national pride of his largest public?

J. F. Horrabin

Child Psychology. Buford J. Johnson. (Baillière, Tindall & Cox. 23s.)

The Psycho-Analysis of Children. Melanie Klein. (Hogarth Press. 18s.)

Development of Learning in Young Children. Louisa C. Wagoner. (McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc. \$2.50.)

These are three recent books on education, each of which may be recommended as a painstaking study in its own field. The method of treatment, however, is strikingly different except in some degree between Johnson and Wagoner.

Considering the books in alphabetical order, that of Professor Johnson, who is Professor of Psychology at John Hopkins University, is the most academic and eclectic. The results of various University and other researches are well given, and the point of view of the author is on most points thoroughly modern and reliable.

One has a feeling, however, that this author approaches the child in a more external way than the other two. His terminology is more behaviouristic, and there seems to be less ability to enter into the more subtle emotions of the child. The work, in a word, is scholarly but somewhat mechanistic. The sketches of children's activities and especially the reproduced motion pictures of infants are a valuable feature.

At the other extreme is Mrs. Klein's volume. It is not concerned with measurements but with the less tangible innermost life of the child, into which it penetrates more deeply than any volume which has hitherto been written.

This has been possible for the author because of her years of research into children's minds by means of the remarkable technique of analysing their play, of which, as is well known, she was the originator. Consequently, the first half of her volume is given to a discussion of this technique of child analysis and topics closely related thereto.

In the account which is given of the emotional life of the child, and especially of very young children, many interesting cases are cited and the psycho-analytic point of view is supported by an abundance of material. Nevertheless, it should be said that this book is essentially one for the very serious student of child psychology who is not to be repelled by points of view which are not only utterly foreign to what has seemed to be obvious or even common sense, but may be offensive to those who have not a certain robustness in facing the aberrations of the sexual.

Professor Wagoner's little volume is, as its title indicates, essentially genetic in conception. Where it surpasses the other volumes is probably in the field

of the development of skills. The whole book is attractively illustrated with photographs of children. These show children more in those daily activities or bits of play which would interest an average parent. A peculiarly valuable chapter is that which analyses children's eating habits, and the causes of eccentricities.

It may serve to illustrate the differences of literary tone in these three books if we take some one topic which is mentioned in the indexes of every one of them and glance at what each one has to say. For example let us take the subject of personality.

Johnson's discussion first defines this term as 'the stimulus-pattern formed by the integration of the reactions of the individual, to which other living creatures respond according to their perceptions of this pattern'. It notes that 'no two scales purporting to measure personality have yet been found to agree', and analyses the reason for this, but is optimistic as to the future developments in the methods of measuring—perhaps even 'in studying the significance of different facial expressions' and of the unusual motor habits of psycho-pathic personalities.

Mrs. Klein is concerned with 'the final stabilization of the individual', which she says cannot be effected until after puberty, as then only 'the ego and super-ego are able to work together.' To be sure, a pressure arises 'from the menacing situation created by the exaggerated demands of the Id on the one side and the super-ego on the other', but this results in a strengthening of the child's ego which brings him closer to what passes as normal adulthood.

Wagoner gives attention to the personality not only of the child but of the teacher. The latter is peculiarly important in the development of the former. The teacher, like the trainer of animals, needs to realize that her charges are more responsive to her moods than to her words. Of outstanding importance is the appearance of a leisurely indifference. Instead of exerting pressure which would urge or even force the child, by a sort of creative waiting she gives him leisure to allow whatever has blocked his action to disappear. And, consequently, it is the non-explosive type of teacher who secures the desired result most quickly. The child, too, learns his power over other people by accumulating ideas 'regarding what responses are to be expected'. Even more importantly, children are sometimes reduced to protecting themselves from 'a response to other people by a withdrawing or aloofness'. There follow a number of thoughtful observations regarding the effects of the teacher's manner with children and the understanding of temperamental differences.

Pryns Hopkins

The Year Book of Education 1933. *Editor in Chief, Lord Eustace Percy, M.P. (Evans Bros. 35s. net.)*

This volume, like its predecessor, is an indispensable companion to administrators and others engaged in the work of Education. When the 1932 edition appeared it was immediately found to supply a real need. This volume is by no means a pedestrian publication providing mere facts and figures;

it does this, it is true, and each year these statistics are brought up to date, but it does a great deal more. A very great part of this large volume is given over to the discussion of outstanding educational problems. 'To some extent,' says Lord Eustace Percy in the introduction, "technical" or "vocational" education may be regarded as the keynote of the volume as it is the keynote of most current discussions of educational policy in all countries. Other problems, however, are also discussed. For example, the idea of an Imperial Institute of Education is dealt with by Prof. F. Clarke, of McGill University, whose contribution to this subject will be recalled by those members of the *New Educational Fellowship* who attended the Commonwealth Conference organized by the Fellowship at Bedford College. Ideals of Religious Education are also discussed and Father Drinkwater's statement from the Catholic standpoint is a challenging one. Section Four deals with educational policy and methods in relation to modern needs and discusses fully the curriculum, and such methods as the Dalton Plan and P.N.E.U. in regard to all types of schools. It is difficult in a short review to detail even a small part of the contents; but no one engaged in educational work can afford to be without this *Year Book* at his elbow for he will need it for constant reference.

A. J. Lynch

The Organization of School Societies and other Activities. *George H. Holroyd, with Foreword by Dr. A. E. Ikin. (Pitman, 7s. 6d.)*

In these days when so much discussion centres round the Adolescent and his use of leisure, and when those who have charge of the training of the growing boy or girl at one of the most important periods of their lives find their work so difficult, a book of this kind comes as a real help. It deals with activities that may be pursued both indoors and out. Dr. Ikin gives clear reasons why such a book should be helpful. 'Among the broadening conceptions dominating modern education,' he says, 'none is more significant than that which recognizes the child as a "social being" with claims somewhat beyond those met by a curriculum in ordinary academic studies, or by having the benefit of more highly skilled teachers, or by an extension of school life.

'The best forms of communal life will be fostered by an Education which regards social activities as a medium for the development of the highest qualities of individuals rather than as something to which the claims of individual development must be subordinated. By grouping for some common purpose a boy loses some of his individuality but gains in his serviceability to the group.' It is a description of these common purposes in some detail with which the book is mainly occupied. Some of it deals with activities, e.g., school visits and dramatic work, that are already to be found in enlightened schools, but it describes others upon which teachers will be glad to have advice. The book, however, is valuable not for teachers only, but to all who work among young people. Mr. Holroyd has indeed performed a useful service.

A. J. Lynch

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

A Monthly Magazine for Parents and Teachers

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PIERRE BOVET is Professor of the University of Geneva and Joint Director with Professor Piaget of the Institut Des Sciences de L'Education. He is also Chairman of the Commission on Bilingualism which was set up at Luxembourg in 1928 and continued at the N.E.F. Conference at Nice in 1932.

J. COMPTON, M.A., is Director of Education for Barking, England. He has also been an Inspector of Education in Manchester and has taught in several schools. He is editor of the *Beacon Literary Readers* and of G. Y. Elton's book, *Teaching English*. He is author of *Open Sesame*, *Magic Sesame* and *The Curtain Rises*—selections of poetry, prose and short plays for children.

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Director of the newly-formed International Association of New Schools. He is author of *The Conquest of Illusion* and other books including *The Task of Education in a World Crisis*, No. 1 of the *Education To-morrow* series.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

THE first World Economic Conference has met in an atmosphere of profound pessimism. An event, which in 1913 would have been acclaimed as one of the great moments in the history of human progress, is received in 1933 with an almost universal scepticism. This is hardly to be wondered at. For a progressive solution of the disarmament problem has yet to be found, while the cause of moral disarmament has received a violent setback from the triumph of Hitler in Germany and its repercussions upon the European situation. A wave of defeatism is sweeping over the world. No land can consider itself immune. It is indeed strange that at a time when the first practical steps are being taken to organize the world on the basis of world-solidarity, the protagonists of this ideal should be growing sceptical of their own faith.

At such a moment what should be the feelings of those of us for whom the new education is not just a question of technique but a cause and an ideal? Have we reason to doubt the wisdom or practicability of the aims we have set before us? One answer alone is possible. Recent events do but confirm our belief that only a new type of education will enable the world to realize the ideals of democracy and internationalism which we have at heart.

This is being at last recognized even by those who are not professional educationalists, as the Nice Conference of the *New Education Fellowship* proved. Scientists and politicians, sociologists and men of affairs, came to Nice and said in effect to the educators: 'Here are our difficulties. With the adult world as it is, we cannot extricate civilization from the present impasse. We look to you to produce a new attitude which will make our modern inter-dependent world a workable and going concern.'

The answer that the educationalists gave was

unequivocal. 'If society will support us in the home and in the school, the new education is perfectly competent to create this new attitude. In doing so it will make possible that democratic and co-operative world-community which has for so long been the dream of mankind.'

The Nice Conference was remarkable in a way that many of those attending it did not realize. The New Education started spontaneously in different parts of the world as the result of the intuitions of various isolated individuals. Although it now has many years of experience and experiment behind it, its practice has never been derived from a common agreed body of doctrine. Has it then no common philosophy, no common attitude? This was in essence the question which the Nice Conference debated. That its answer was categorically in the affirmative was only half apparent during the Conference itself, where differences of language and divergent habits of expression disturbed the general impression of unity. But it has been made abundantly clear in the volume which is shortly to be published in English under the title of *A New World in the Making*.*

This volume, like its predecessor, *Towards a New Education*, is not so much a report as a book based upon the Conference discussions. Its main effect is to show how the ideals of democracy and international co-operation have been thwarted by the education of tradition with its insistence upon imposed authority and individualistic competition. It describes both the new type of human relationship which is needed by the modern world and the various

*Obtainable from the N.E.F., price 8s. post free. A library edition in two volumes, containing the full proceedings of the Conference in the three original languages, English, French and German, is being published by subscription and can be obtained from the Fellowship, price 30s. post free.

attempts at its creation made in the East as well as in the West.

The central thesis of the book is thus formulated by Professor Piaget. In order to master the inter-dependent world in which we live to-day, we need to create a new instrument of human understanding. This can only be done if we free children from the intellectual and emotional fetters of tradition so that they learn to think and feel for themselves, and foster in them the ability to look at the world through other people's eyes, so that while maintaining their own point of view they may be ready to appreciate and accommodate themselves to the standpoint of others. This means giving up coercion as an instrument of education and substituting for it the natural sanctions of social life.

That this is the way the school is evolving is shown by the many pages in the book devoted to the socialization of school work and discipline by means of group activities and student councils. Other sections show how teachers are coming to see as one of the main tasks of education the releasing of children from the prejudices of their environment. This is possible only if the Social Sciences, which comprise the study of contemporary society and of geography, history and civics, can be made the centre of the curriculum. Yet another section deals with ways in which the creative artistic ability which is latent in children can be aroused and given scope, thus freeing the emotional forces within men and paving the way for the development of a democratic culture in which everyone may share.

But the recurring theme of the book is the fatal effect of coercion, as practised in the home and in society at large.

Coercion is a failure of education and leads inevitably to rebellion and violence.

The latest example of this truth is to be seen in Germany. Hitlerism would have been impossible without the blind coercion of Versailles. That is why to a large section of the German people the Hitler régime appears as a liberation, recalling to self-respect a nation much humiliated. But Hitlerism as an international phenomenon is much wider than this. A child placed in an intolerable situation protests by fits of indiscriminate destructiveness. The destructive violence of the European

movement we know as Hitlerism (its extreme nationalism, and even its hatred of the Jews, can be matched in the mouths of many Englishmen) is based upon the intolerable situation in which so many of the middle class find themselves to-day. Psychologists warn us that the only way to get any impulse under control is to allow it free rein at first under suitable conditions. With children the play-way lies to hand. With nations the situation is far more tragic and difficult. The destructiveness of revolution can only be valuably harnessed, as their outcome always shows, when it is applied to the uprooting of decayed social institutions. Let us hope that Hitlerism will soon find its proper outlet in such a needed work. Meanwhile, those who stand apart from all movements of mere violence, whether right or left wing, should refuse to be dragged in their wake. For coercion is the antithesis of education and results from a temporary breakdown in human sympathy and intelligence.

If the thesis we have expounded here is correct, the key to a solution of our present difficulties lies in the hands of the educators. For only a new attitude in education will produce a new world, capable of realizing the ideals which most of us still cherish in our hearts. The failure of the Economic Conference, the postponement of disarmament, the inability of individual statesmen to rise to the height of their opportunities, may still further increase our present misery and even finally lead to another devastating war. But none of these things will destroy the nature of the world which man has created for himself. It will remain a technically unified world, requiring for its proper control both the scientific habit of mind and the spirit of sympathy and mutual accommodation for which the *Fellowship* stands. There is therefore nothing to be gained by throwing over the great ideals of the last two centuries, or by abandoning reason in favour of force. If those who have the vision have also the will, there can be no question but that mankind, turning from its recent frenzy of hatred and destruction like a child at last understood and beloved, will work through a period of emotional convalescence to a new dawn of sanity and creative vigour.

W.R.

Bilingualism and Education

PIERRE BOVET

AMONG the many meetings of the *N.E.F.* in Nice one series of sessions grouped from many lands educationists interested in the problems raised by bilingualism. This section, convened by Miss Hywella Saer, of Aberystwyth, was in a way a continuation of the proceedings of an international conference organised in Luxemburg in 1928 by the International Bureau of Education in Geneva. Most of the papers presented in Nice came from people who had attended the 1928 conference. This continuity of effort shows the importance of the questions raised. It will have to last for many years more before the problems are solved. Let us consider some of the difficulties that lie before the inquirers.

The Educational Problems of Bilingualism

In many places the language spoken by the teacher in the class-room is not the same language the child speaks out of doors or at home. This is the case when a great nation with a centralised school system insists on having one language all over its territory without taking into account the provincial idioms. (France, ignoring the current language of the Bretons, the Basques, the Alsatians, the Provençaux, may be taken as an example. As every one knows, this attitude of the French school had raised few protests before the Alsatian post-war problem.) An altogether different situation which causes similar difficulties is that of mixed linguistic areas such as are found in some parts of Belgium and Switzerland (Brussels, Fribourg, Bienne, etc.) A third case, and a very important one too, is presented in countries or provinces where the spoken dialect shows considerable differences from the literary language. (This is the case in German Switzerland and in most parts of Germany and Italy.) A fourth situation is the one of immigrants. (It may be the individual case of a foreign resident sending his children to a national school, or the collective problem of compact masses as we find them in the United States.) Lastly we have in colonial countries the conflict of native and European languages, which has such far-reaching issues. Therefore it becomes obvious that the educa-

tional problems of bilingualism are affecting an important proportion of the school population of the world. They truly deserve careful study; the more so because (and this does not need to be developed here) all over the world people show themselves to be extremely sensitive about everything which pertains to the use of their mother tongue. There are emotional associations attached to it. An enquiry into the complexes of the subconscious mind would explain the depth and intensity of feelings which are, in some parts of the world, only too easy to ascertain.

The problems raised by these bilingual situations are twofold, political and educational: in the first place, what attitude, what measures should be taken by the school authorities in the interests of the State? and in the second, what attitude best safeguards the interest of the pupil? Of these two sets of questions, the conferences in Luxemburg and Nice most carefully avoided the first. They were exclusively concerned with the effects of bilingualism on the mind of the child. And before deciding what was to be done, they felt the necessity of a careful inquiry into what is actually happening at present under the different conditions described.

The Effects of Bilingualism

'What are the effects of bilingualism?' This was the central question of our meetings. In a short article like this it is impossible, much as I regret it, to recall the history of this research. It is to the late D. J. Saer, of Aberystwyth, that we owe not only a clear statement of the problem but a most interesting attempt towards its solution by strictly scientific methods. Saer and his colleagues of the University of Wales, Professors Smith and Hughes, showed that, under the conditions then prevailing in the Welsh school system, children coming from Welsh-speaking homes into schools where English was the only language used, were appreciably and permanently impaired in their mental development as measured by an Intelligence Quotient obtained from mental and scholastic tests. Very wisely, and in a thoroughly

scientific spirit, they refrained from generalising their findings and asked for further experimental research conducted elsewhere with possibly other methods. The Luxemburg conference was to be an answer to this request.

Its immediate results were not very apparent. To the question: 'What are the effects of bilingualism?' two other preliminary ones were added: (1) 'What are the kinds and grades of bilingualism, and how are we going to measure these grades?' and (2) 'How are we going to measure the effects of bilingualism?' The whole enquiry, as one sees, was first calling for discussions of a very technical character.

Grades of Bilingualism and their Measurement

Dr. Daniel A. Prescott, of Rutgers University, N.J., U.S.A., sent to Nice a Progress Report of Research dealing with Bilingualism, which brought to light some facts of great sociological interest: the extreme frequency of bilingualism in the school population of some parts of the State of New Jersey (of 12,270 pupils of more than 9 years touched by the enquiry, 8,874, i.e. 72 per cent. gave answers testifying to the influence of a language other than English),—great differences between the immigrant colonies from the point of view of their resistance to linguistic assimilation (Spaniards, Greeks, Ukrainians, Russians are most, Jews, Germans and Danes least, refractory)—the existence in New Jersey of a language unknown in Europe, 'slav', a neutral and composite means of communication for Russians, Czecks, Ukrainians and Poles. The Nice group has retained Dr. Prescott's method as a useful way of determining objectively the grades and varieties of bilingualism to which Dr. Decroly had pointed in his paper for the Luxemburg conference.

We quote Dr. Prescott: 'The questions are worded in such a manner that in each case the answer would be one word: the name of the language used under the conditions described. Sample questions are:

'What language did you speak first?

'What language does your father usually use when he talks to your mother?

'What language does your father use when he talks to an older person in the house?

'What language does your father use when he talks to your little brothers and sisters?

'What language does your father use when he talks to you?

'In what language do you talk to your father?

'The same questions were asked regarding the habits of the mother. Further questions are:

'In what language do you usually talk to your brothers and sisters?

'Do you have newspapers and magazines in your home that are not English?

'Do you read them often?

'Do you write in some other language besides English?

'What language is used in your church?

'What language is used in most of the parties and entertainments to which you go?

'Did you ever go to a school where the teachers did not talk much English to the pupils?

'The scoring of the questionnaire is very simple. One point is given to each question answered to show foreign language usage and the sum of these units represents a rough index of the extent of the non-English language influence upon the children in the home.'

The experimental researches conducted in 1929 in Barcelona by Mr. and Mrs. Gali are interpreted by them as showing a kind of mental disarray caused by the school bilingualism existing at the time (children from Catalan homes being taught exclusively in Castilian). Their method consisted of registering the immediate verbal memory with two parallel series of ten equally familiar words given one in Castilian, the other in Catalan. The familiarity of the child with each of the two languages might be measured by the relative number of words retained under the same conditions. Another experiment is one of chain-association. The stimulus words were given alternately in Castilian and Catalan, the child being asked to write all the words in either language that would come to his mind during half a minute. Here again the proportion of the words of the two languages may be taken as a kind of bilingual index, which it would be interesting to correlate with the home conditions ascertained by Dr. Prescott's questionnaire.

Miss H. Saer's researches conducted in 1930 and 1931 are also along the association method. Fifty words were selected naming situations, persons, things or actions which are already

familiar to a 3-years old child. They were given both in English and in Welsh, making one hundred altogether. Fifty girls, between 11 and 19, were asked to give the first word that came in either language. The association time was carefully taken. A comparison of the reactions of every individual girl to the English and Welsh words of corresponding meaning proved most instructive. Without going into technical details we may mention that the experimental findings corresponded to situations previously ascertained by D. J. Saer in 1924. A high degree of true bilingualism results from the use of a second language in plays and games from an early age.

Effects of Bilingualism and their Measurement

This was the second question raised by the papers presented at Luxemburg. They had pointed to a possible influence of bilingualism on motricity, general intelligence, school achievements, affectivity, and the acquisition of new languages. In Nice attention has been almost exclusively focussed on two fields: affectivity and language mastery and fluency.

How are we to measure the effects of bilingualism on affectivity? By the association method. If Mr. Gali's and Miss Saer's techniques were applied both to monoglot and to bilingual children, a comparison of the results might give us an interesting insight on the influence which a second language, acquired at an early age under given conditions, may have on the affectivity of the child. This research remains to be done.

Bilingualism—A Handicap or an Advantage

With relation to mastery of language, the Luxemburg conference had contrasted two opinions. On the one hand the Welsh enquiries showed that in a certain type of school bilingualism considerably impaired the intellectual development of the child; on the other hand precise observation of home bilingualism by Ronjat and enquiry by Meyhoffer at the International School of Geneva, saw nothing but advantages in the early acquisition of a second language.

In order to solve this antinomy, two hypotheses were then suggested. One of them under-

lined the importance of affective factors: a second language learned so to speak wholeheartedly and in play surroundings would have effects altogether different from a language imposed in the class room with more or less vexatary methods. We have already indicated that Miss Saer's studies seem to support this first hypothesis.

The other suggestion—which in no way contradicts the first, but which may furnish a valuable supplement—was put forward by the late Dr. Decroly. He pointed to the great differences existing between individual children with regard to speech facility, quite apart from any influence of bilingualism, and suggested that the contradictory opinions about the effects of bilingualism be interpreted as follows: for children, gifted from the language point of view, i.e. endowed with verbal facility and fluency, there would be no harm in the acquisition of a second language; for others, probably the majority, the effort required by that acquisition, being too great, would impair their mental development.

M. Junod, of the Berne Normal School, has begun with the help of the Rousseau Institute in Geneva an experimental verification of this hypothesis, and devised a battery of individual and collective tests, in order to measure the 'language facility' of a child. Those tests may be used in different ways. First, in relation to home bilingualism, they will show us whether there is any relation between this speech fluency and the forms and grades of home bilingualism. Second, in relation to school bilingualism, we shall be able to see whether school achievements and the mental development of children hitherto monoglots varies in relation to the degree of speech facility ascertained by the tests before school entrance.

I fear this report on the Nice proceedings may appear very dry and very technical. It will at least have shown that the educational problems of bilingualism, quite apart from any political issues, are no easy ones. It is a matter of deep gratitude for all those who take interest in this research that the Welsh pioneers who first saw the problems proceeded to their solution in a truly admirable spirit of scientific objectivity and prudence which makes their inquiry a lasting model.



*Left :
Working out of doors at Odenwaldschule*

*Right
The Institut Monnier in Camp*



A pool near the Camp

Odenwaldschule pupils on the road



The New Leadership

J. J. VAN DER LEEUW

IF all definition is dangerous, the lack of it is fatal. And without attempting a Teutonic explanation by definition and classification, it is well to bring the idea of leadership from the abstract to the real.

Heroic Leadership

When we discuss leadership,—the need of it in our days, the way in which education can bring it out,—what kind of leadership do we have in mind? Towards what do we desire or expect this leadership to lead? Do we want the leader of Kipling's *If*, the man who is at his best in a tight corner, in danger, under hardships, who has poise and courage, resourcefulness and ability, in a desperate situation? If so, it is physical or heroic leadership we seek, a type which England has produced with more success than any other nation.

When in danger or difficulty, there is no type of man I would rather have beside me than that which the English Public School, at its best, has produced and still does produce. It may not be always the most erudite type, the most original or imaginative; it has *les défauts de ses qualités*. In a tight corner, however, one does not ask for scholarship or artistic vision, but for the gift of sizing up the situation of the moment and dealing with it calmly and bravely. And England has always been blessed with a singular abundance of young men, who, though inexperienced, can carry responsibility, and who, by this gift of meeting emergencies, manage, if not to fight through, at least to muddle through.

But there is another form of leadership, one that prevents us from getting into a mess. It is less spectacular, its warnings are, at times, disdained as pusillanimous, but it is the more valuable. It is splendid to have heroic companions who can stand by us in danger; but it is better still to have those who can foresee and forestall the danger. Such leadership of prevision may seem to lack dash and daring, but in the affairs of nations, at least, it often takes the greater courage to surrender the glories of adventurous enterprise when we can see the catastrophe to which it must lead.

The average man's conception of history is ever on the side of the heroic leader. A Napoleon may, for a generation, cause untold suffering by a ruthless ambition and leave behind an impoverished and crippled nation, yet it will love him for it. And even where the heroic is lacking and only the spectacular remains, a Nero may be remembered where an Antoninus Pius is forgotten. The spectacular wins every time.

The leadership of foresight is far from being negative; it demands a man who is ahead of his fellows in understanding, who can express in word and action their inarticulate gropings. His leadership is mental rather than physical, he is the man of insight and foresight, *Promethean* man.

In this leadership, England has been as deficient as she has excelled in physical or heroic leadership; her genius for getting out of a muddle is only equalled by her genius for getting into one. Examples are not lacking. Both the Irish and the Indian unrest, causing lasting estrangement from England, can be traced directly to lack of sympathetic understanding, of imagination and foresight. In both cases self-government was withheld until that which, given freely a few years earlier, would have bound the countries together in a lasting friendship, was either rejected or accepted unwillingly.

The very qualities which make possible heroic leadership, lack of sympathy and of imagination, a severe repression of the emotions, exclude Promethean leadership which holds that prevention is better than the best cure.

Promethean Leadership

Promethean leadership is not to be confused with the purely emotional leadership of those who, as orators or demagogues, interpret the feelings of the mob, arouse its passions and sway its judgments. Far from being a wise leadership that steers clear of political adventure, the purely emotional leadership is the most fruitful source of trouble in history. Its appeal is ever to the unfulfilled desires of the crowd, to whom it promises a satisfaction it cannot give.

Beyond both the heroic and the Promethean is the leadership of vision, the leadership of the artist. No great deed was ever done that was not first the dream of the visionary, that was not given voice and body by the poet and musician. It is the leadership of inspiration, that enables a generation to understand itself, that gives it a faith to sustain and a sense of values to guide its work. Without this truly *Apollinian* leadership civilization would crumble; it is the very lack of it that makes for the disintegrating tendencies of our own time.

Promethean leadership is less spectacular than the heroic type; being of the mind it is one stage removed from the tangible and phenomenal world, its relation to the events in the latter is that of cause to effect. Still less tangible and at the same time more influential is Apollinian leadership; the work of one poet may influence an entire generation, even generations to come. If this is not leadership, nothing is, but its action is unseen, its nature and work must seem un-practical and even unreal to those for whom leadership mainly calls forth the image of officers leading their men into battle.

It will be clear that no leader in real life is ever exclusively of one of the types mentioned; human nature is always a mixture. Distinctions serve to clarify thought, not to pigeonhole life. And it will be evident that each type of leadership excels at its own level, where it and it alone is called for.

In all discussions on leadership, it should be remembered that leadership is not a quality of an individual, but a relation between individuals. It takes two to make a leader, the leader and the led. The same man who would make an admirable leader at a certain time in a certain milieu, may be quite ineffective elsewhere or at another time. We must always guard against the dread heresy of making absolute that which has meaning only as the relative. Leadership is a relation between men; only when we look at it as such can any discussion of it be fruitful.

Human relations are a variable quantity; the attitude of man to his universe and his fellow-men changes with his mentality. It is only the unimaginative view of history that sees the difference between the past and the present merely in terms of facts and institutions. The

real difference is always one of mentality; as man's outlook changes, all aspects of his life—religious and artistic as well as political and social, change with it. The very meaning of leadership, therefore, has changed through the ages, and we must try to understand the leadership that is now emerging. Else we are in danger of discussing a leadership that is already outworn.

The New Leadership

The coming leadership is no longer that of past ages in which the leader was worshipped as God incarnate, nor that of more recent times in which leadership meant victory in a struggle for power. The new leadership is to be that of *representative man*, recognized as such by the group. He represents in his life the wider life that lives in the entire group, his greatness lies in that he has transcended the limits of separate individuality and actually shares the life of the group which he can interpret and express. In hailing him as their leader the members of the group feel that in him becomes articulate what stirred vaguely in them; he does and says what they dimly felt.

The representative character of this new leadership is possible only where man transcends a narrow individualism; separate men can but attain to a leadership of power. It is a new aristocracy, this of representative man, not based on birth, or on blood-kinship, but on identification with the life of the group.

Representative man is not just stronger than his fellows, he is above all more understanding, has a wider sympathy, a more creative imagination. His leadership does not call for ruthlessness or for an insensitiveness to emotion; it is a leadership of insight and foresight, the Promethean leadership of which we spoke above. For representative man does not merely represent what his group is or thinks or feels—even the more vulgar Press can do that; he represents a level of consciousness that is as yet beyond the threshold in the group, making its pressure felt as uneasiness, as *malaise*, the oppressive tenseness preceding the thunderstorm. The lightning of his intuition discharges the brooding atmosphere, his releasing word is the true *logos spermatikos*, giving birth to a new consciousness in the group. Representative man

represents not what is, but what is coming; he is midwife to a new age.

Education For Leadership

It is through education that the new leadership can be realized. In the past, Public Schools deliberately aimed at producing leaders. The type they produced was the physical or heroic rather than the Promethean leader. The former is a splendid type, his value in individual life is unimpaired, but politically he is out of date.

Various factors contributed to the education for physical leadership, above all an assured sense of superiority, such as never doubted itself. Now this is an immense asset—as long as the superiority is believed in by others. It does away with all need for self-assertion: only he who doubts his own superiority must needs compensate his sense of inferiority by a boastful or swaggering behaviour. A well-established sense of superiority can disdain such misguided methods as bad form—which they are—and achieves all they seek in vain by not allowing even the shadow of a doubt to enter the soul. This attitude has given Englishmen a poise and a self-assurance such as no other nation has; it is a powerful contributing factor in the production of physical leadership. Only as long as it is believed in by others, however. The moment the other party in the process refuses to acknowledge this assumption of superiority there remains but a dignified and self-possessed retreat.

There was and is, however, more than mere suggestion in this attitude of superiority; it is backed up by very real qualities of character. Most of them are qualities essential to physical leadership and at their best in emergencies. The character or moral backbone is in reality a combination of qualities. The suppression of emotion, most of all of the imagination, combined with a powerful conventional code of things that are done and things that are not done, that are good or bad form, provides a solid structure which will keep its outline even under severe strain. The cost, however, is heavy; emotional starvation and lack of spontaneity are only part of the price.

In an age when all values are tested and nothing can hold its own except by its real worth, it is not enough to do a thing because it is done

or to refrain from doing it because it is not done. We must know why we do a thing, we must act consciously, not conventionally. The new morality is not subject to rules; it is not based on the authority of a traditional code; it springs from within, its spontaneity is not subject to rules.

Tradition has been and still is the strength of the Public Schools. Its charm and value are undeniable: through it the wisdom of the past is inherited by the present. But, alas! also its ignorance or foolishness. Then tradition becomes but custom, 'the damned custom' of which Hamlet could say: 'it hath made me mad'. But Hamlet was not the only one driven to despair by a purely traditional and lifeless environment; even where tradition is beneficent it has the drawback of branding the spontaneous and original individual as 'odd'. There is more intolerance among schoolboys than even among grown-ups, more contempt for the unfortunate boy who is different, even though the difference be but one of dress and speech. It is the tribal spirit that thrives on traditions and rejects all innovations.

Tradition and the New Leadership

Heroic leadership is furthered by tradition; Promethean leadership is stifled by it. The very qualities that go to make the latter—intuition, imagination, spontaneity, independent judgment and emotional sensitiveness—have but little chance to develop in a school system that finds its strength in the moulding influence of tradition, however noble that tradition may be. Tradition makes for uniformity, for an acceptance of the present as rooted in the past, for a *laudatio temporis*. Representative man, the Promethean leader, is inspired by the immediate future, it lives already in him; he is to interpret it to his age; he is dynamic, not static. This leadership of intuition and foresight cannot develop under our present educational system.

Still less chance is there for the highest leadership of all, for the artistic or Apollinean leadership. The school-room is hardly the place for the kiss of the Muses; such feminine intrusion would hardly be welcomed in our Public Schools. When Shelley describes 'the hour which burst my spirit's sleep' it is not in school that this vision came but:

'When I walked forth upon the glittering grass
And wept I knew not why, until there rose
From the near school-room voices that, alas,
Were but one echo from a world of woes—
The harsh and grating strife of tyrants and of
foes.

And then I clasped my hands and looked
around,
But none was there to mock my streaming
eyes'.

Mocked Shelley was; one of his schoolfellows at Eton tells of seeing him 'surrounded, hooted, baited like a maddened bull'. When, under such circumstances, vision and inspiration come to a boy, it is notwithstanding his educational environment. Oxford could but expel Shelley; well indeed may the female figure in his memorial at University College hide her face in sadness!

Eton and Oxford are vastly different to-day from what they were in Shelley's days, but even so, the individual who will not fit in remains an offence. As long as tradition rules in education and its ideal is heroic leadership, we cannot wonder at the absence of vision and inspiration in our national life. Apollinian leadership is excluded by an attitude which honours only manly virtues and considers emotion as just slightly indecent.

Yet there never was an age that needed the leadership of vision as much as ours. The problems of the day may appear to be mainly political and economic, but behind both politics and economics stands living man and it is the crisis in man that ultimately determines the world-crisis. The disillusionments following the war have left a disenchanted and cynical generation, a generation without faith. Man cannot live without some faith; it is the unifying and centralizing power in his life, and without it disintegration sets in. It need not be religious faith; faith in some leader, in an idea, in one's self, may serve as that central organizing force. Our age is suffering through lack of faith; it has no vision left but one of despair. And it will not awaken to a new vision without that Apollinian leadership. The need of it is greater than of any other leadership, which would be aimless without it. Let it not be thought, therefore, an indifferent matter whether our schools do or do not prevent the free development of

those qualities that go to the highest leader of all. For even if education may not be able to aim at the leadership of vision, it can do much to prevent it.

The Task of Education

All conscious aiming at producing leadership seems wrong; education can but enable the qualities to develop that are essential to the new leadership. I would rather have education forget about leadership and concentrate on its true task—to bring out of the pupil what is in him. Such is the meaning of the word itself; what happens in most schools, however, can at best be called in-education. The pupil is looked on as an empty vessel to be filled by the overflowing wisdom from that fount of knowledge, the teacher. At set hours, at set rates, the class is to imbibe this learning; the enforcing of that psychological impossibility is called discipline. Uniformity and enforced learning are death to spontaneity; in the old education originality, intuition and imagination have no place.

In the new education, art can no longer be a 'side-show', as it is in most schools to-day; it becomes an integral and essential part of the school's life, at least as much as games are in the old education. Not that the latter are to be superseded, it is only their terrible monopoly that has to end. As long as games dominate the school, heroic leadership will remain the ideal; the boy's standard of values will develop on the basis of proficiency in games. Games should remain an essential part of the school's life, but so should art; its influence in the school should be recognized to be at least as valuable and necessary as that of games for the harmonious development of the individual.

Whether this harmonious development will ever be possible without the presence of the other sex is a question. In most discussions on leadership, it is taken for granted that only boys can ever become leaders; girls are not mentioned. It is true that, except for an occasional Jeanne d'Arc, women are hardly meant for heroic leadership which is based on manly virtues. But the new leadership needs the womanly qualities as well. The new type of leader may be less exclusively male, he will certainly be more human. And—why not face it?—the new leader may be a woman.

The Vienna Picture-Statistics

EDFORD PRIESTLEY

AMONG the many post-war developments in education, one which promises to be of great importance in the future is the new method of pictorial illustration devised by Dr. Otto Neurath of the Vienna Social and Economic Museum.

The Museum was founded in 1924 and its object was to collect and put forward in the most graphic manner all the statistics of the town of Vienna which would be of interest to its citizens. The average person, however, knows little about graphs and is overwhelmed when faced with long tables of statistics. Illustrations had to be found which he could not only grasp easily, but which would stimulate him to enquire and compare, and at the same time give him pleasure.

Picture Writing—and Statistics

Dr. Neurath and his colleagues went back to picture-writing for their solution, and what they have produced is a combination of pictures and symbols such as has never been seen before. Vital statistics of population, infant mortality, etc., become simple when expressed in terms of babies and coffins; the classification of men into types holds our attention when we see them marked with their appropriate symbols, the cogwheel, the hammer, the bow and arrow or the sickle. Thus the scope of the Vienna Museum has now passed beyond mere municipal enterprise to the wider field of education and world statistics. The system has been applied with success in the schools of Vienna, in Russia, Holland and Germany, and its fame is now spreading to England and America.

The principles are few. If we are to help people to see the world in miniature, we must make the facts about it attractive to them. Tables of figures, and even graphs, may be interesting to a sociologist but they are meaningless to an unlettered labourer.

Of all forms of illustration, the picture makes the strongest appeal; but that appeal must be reinforced by simplicity and clarity,

and it is on these fundamental principles that the whole teaching of the Vienna method is based. In dealing with statistics, Dr. Neurath accordingly rejects figures which are correct to the unit in favour of rough working approximations. 'Well-estimated is better than badly counted' and 'round figures remembered are better than exact figures forgotten' are two of his favourite maxims. Thus, in all its charts, the Vienna method makes for simplicity. 'On the first, second and third glances a chart should reveal information, but on the fourth, nothing further.' Dr. Neurath, while rejecting graph, statistical table, photograph and diagram, brings to his use ingenious combinations of them all.

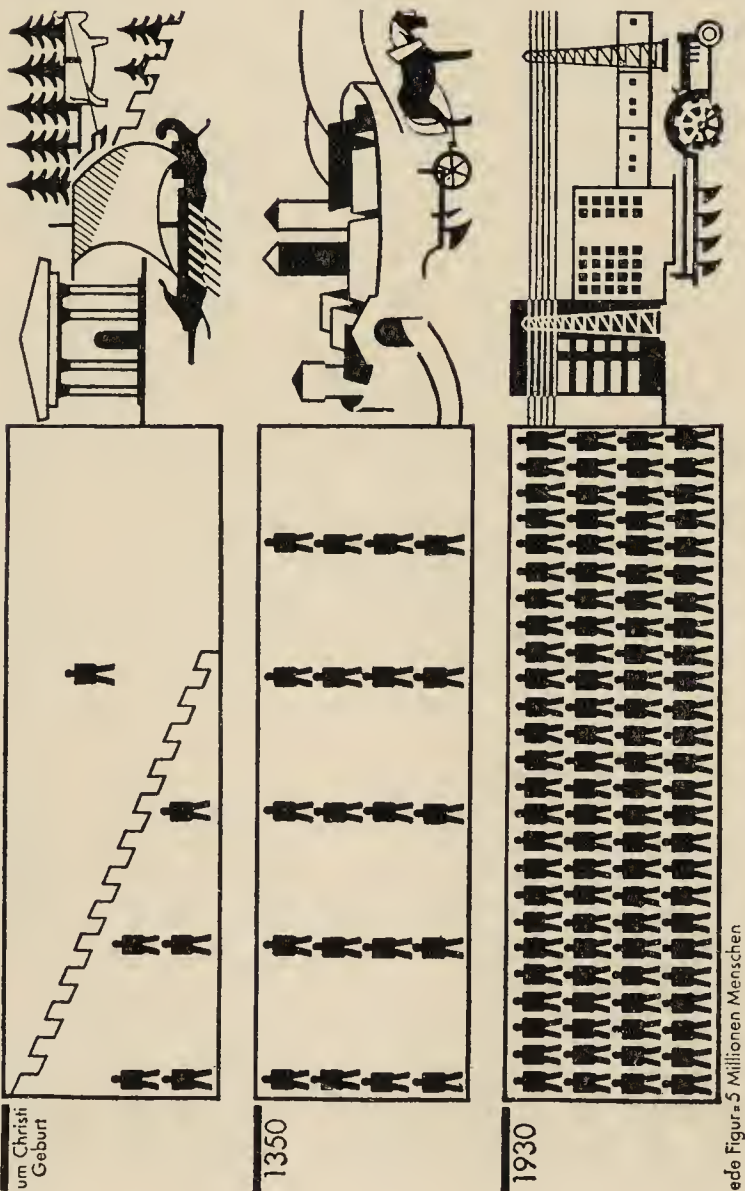
The Vienna picture-statistics are made up of simple figures of people and things, all of one size, and each representing a given number of units. By arranging these in groups, any large number may be built up, and comparisons in population, products, horsepower, etc., become simple. To their aid is brought every device which will ensure clarity. Colours, too, all have meanings. The cogwheel signifies industry and the sickle agriculture. Indeed the variety and number of the symbols is infinite, and a dictionary of over 1,200 standard symbols used in the Vienna method is, in fact, already in existence.

The symbols are, however, so self-evident that five minutes' study is sufficient to master them all. A visit to the small exhibit on view at Bumpus' bookshop (350 Oxford Street, London) will give a good idea of the method.

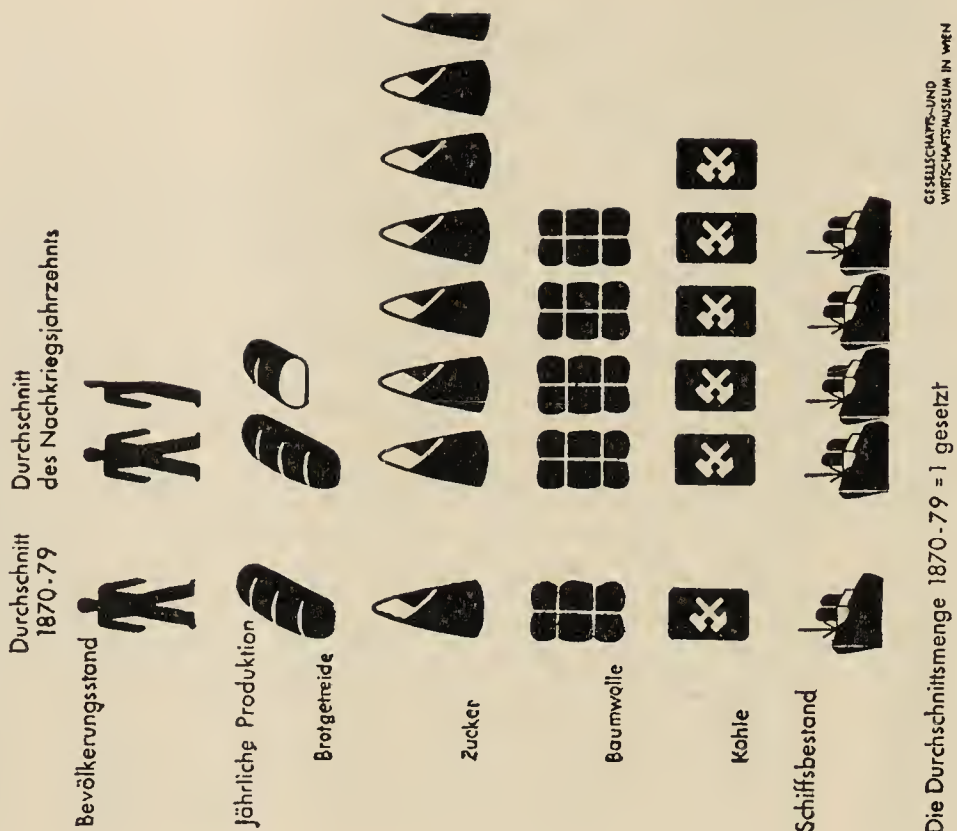
Statistics in Schools

The value of this method of work in schools, and especially to geography, history and social science, is inestimable. Compare any of our school maps showing the products of a country with a Vienna map and the advantage is obvious. Not only is the sugar-producing region indicated by a number of sugar-loaves, but we see the amount by counting them, the kind of sugar by their colours, whether

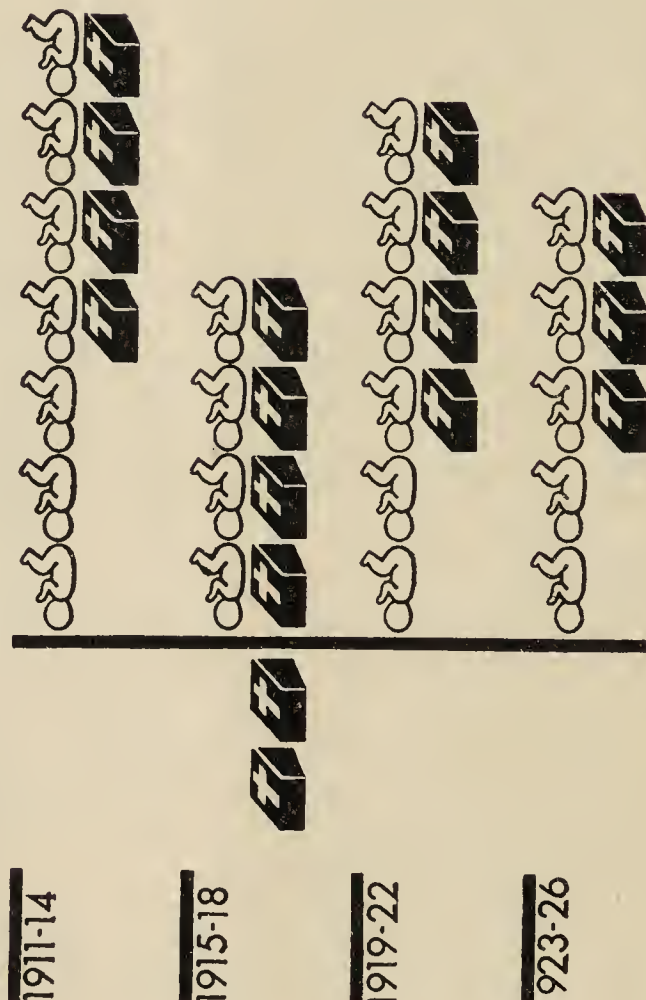
DIE BEVÖLKERUNG EUROPAS



Mensch und Produktion



GEBURTEN UND STERBEFÄLLE IN DEUTSCHLAND

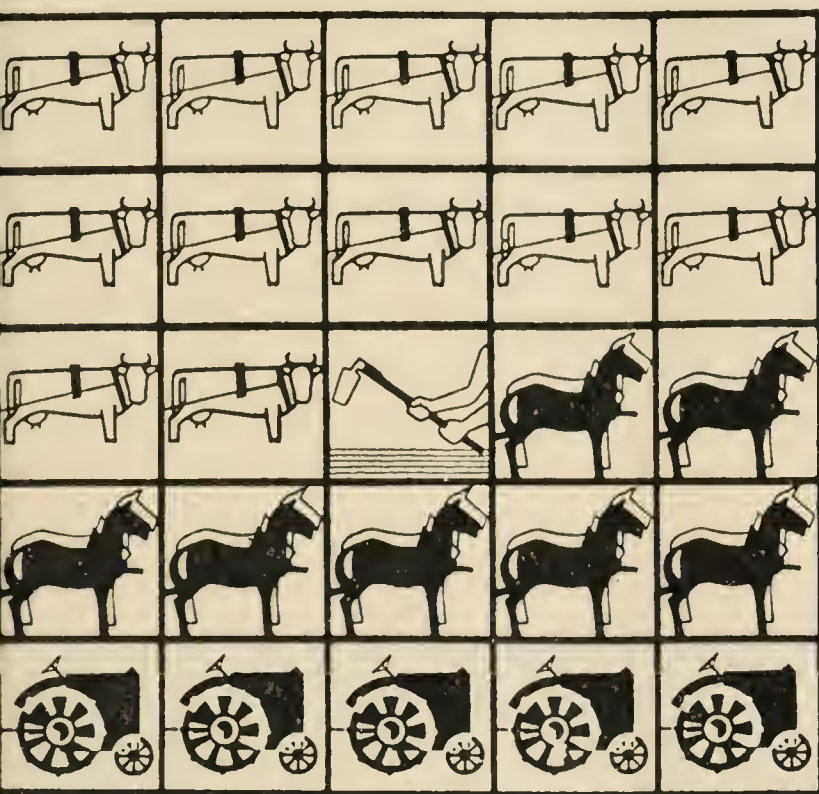


Jedes Kind = 1 Million Lebendgeborene Jeder Sarg = 1 Million Sterbefälle

GESELLSCHAFTS-UND WIRTSCHAFTSMUSEUM IN WIEN

These reproductions are by courtesy of the Vienna Mondaneum. They are of course greatly reduced in size, and give no idea of the bright colours in many of the original diagrams.

BETRIEBSGROSSEN IN DER LANDWIRTSCHAFT 1925



Jedes Quadrat mit Signatur: 1 Million ha

Quadrat mit Hufe: Parzellenbetriebe (0-2 ha)
 Quadrat mit Kuh: Klein- u. Mittelbauern (2-20 ha)
 Quadrat mit Pferdepaar: Grossbauern (20-100 ha)
 Quadrat mit Traktor: Grossgrundbesitz (über 100 ha)

Auf Grund der landwirtschaftl. Betriebszählung in Deutschland 1925

Imported or exported by placing them on two kinds of diminutive boats. In the same way the Method may be used in history to make maps and charts, and in economics to explain such matters as the effects of rationalization. There is no end to the uses to which it can be put. I have seen the little child's picture-book, as well as the organization of the most complicated business, illustrated in this way. And so vivid is the impression given that facts we thought we knew before we find we had only half realized.

Its most obvious use in schools is, of course, the chart and the illustration of school books. But in addition teachers and children are encouraged to make pictures of their own. This takes a long time where all the figures have to be drawn, but even this difficulty has been overcome. In Austria the symbols used by the teacher are made of magnetized metal and placed as required on a steel sheet where they can be regrouped again and again.

For the children there are thousands of small gummed prints which they can cut out in a few minutes and use for their charts.

The Vienna Museum

A visit to the Vienna Museum is described in a well-known Swedish newspaper as follows:—

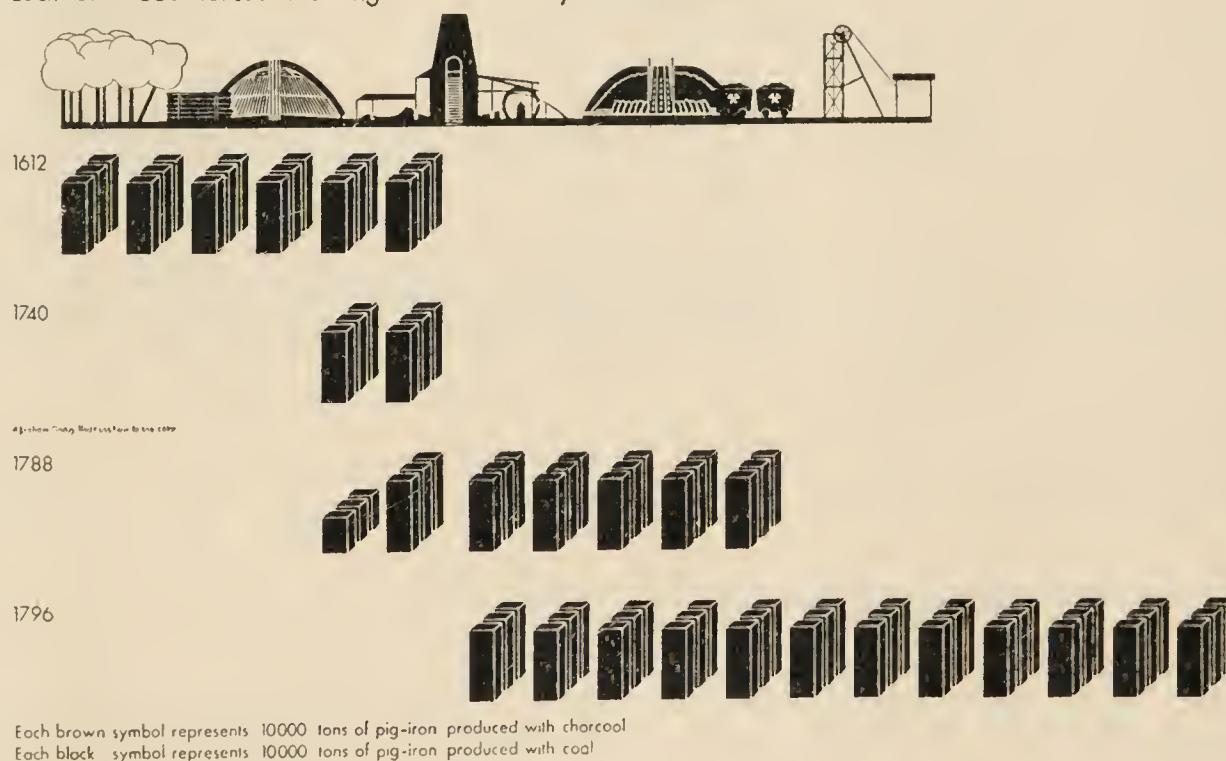
'One or two light airy rooms, the walls covered with simplified representations of the inevitable laws of life—birth, death, work, workers in the fields in green colouring, workers at machines in red colouring, babies and coffins, a

church, a factory chimney, motors and skyscrapers, white men, Chinese and negroes, animals, machines and maps, above all, many maps. Clear cheerful colours.

'Simple paper doll "snippets" cut out ready for use like a table game. Here we are on the track of something real! These figures, put together properly, constitute a language, a pictorial language, new "hieroglyphics." The grown-up children who draw these figures are well-known artists, and behind the simplification of "gadgets" and "snippets" lies an incredible amount of work and deep study.'

The Vienna method has been introduced

Lack of Wood forced the English Iron Industry to use Coked Coal



into England only recently* and is not as yet widely known. Literature about it, and even the labelling of the charts, is still for the most part in German, though English material is in course of preparation and will soon be available. A mere glimpse, however, of its magnificent sets of drawings, 'Gesellschaft

und Wirtschaft' (World Social and Economic Life), 'Technik und Menschheit' (Technique and Mankind), and a peep into a delightful little book for children, *Die Bunte Welt* (The Vivid World), will convince both teacher and layman that here we are on the track of something new and worth while.

* A corresponding Centre has been set up at the care of World Association of Adult Education, 16 Russell Square, W.C.1.

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An Experiment in Celtic Art

GEORGE BAIN

ALMOST every nation with the exception of our own, has its native ornamental arts and crafts as part of its national inheritance of character and culture. Folk songs, folk dances and a few other forms of culture have indeed persisted in Britain, whatever has befallen its various rulers and governments; but there is to-day no national ornamental art—we are content merely to imitate those of other countries.

Yet in Great Britain and Ireland until the ninth or tenth centuries, there was a native ornamental art that is at least equal to that of other nations. The methods and motives of this great art naturally varied in the different districts in which it was practised, but its most highly developed forms are to be found in the manuscripts of Ireland prior to the tenth century and on the cross slabs of Scotland stretching from Fife to Pentland Firth. Why these two arts are similar and how they were lost are not matters for this article. The life work of men like J. Romilly Allen has given us a key to this art mansion with its locked rooms, and during the last fifty years, quite a number of investigators have been engaged in picking the locks with more or less success.

Celtic Art and Scottish Children

For some years past, I have been experimenting to find out how the children in the

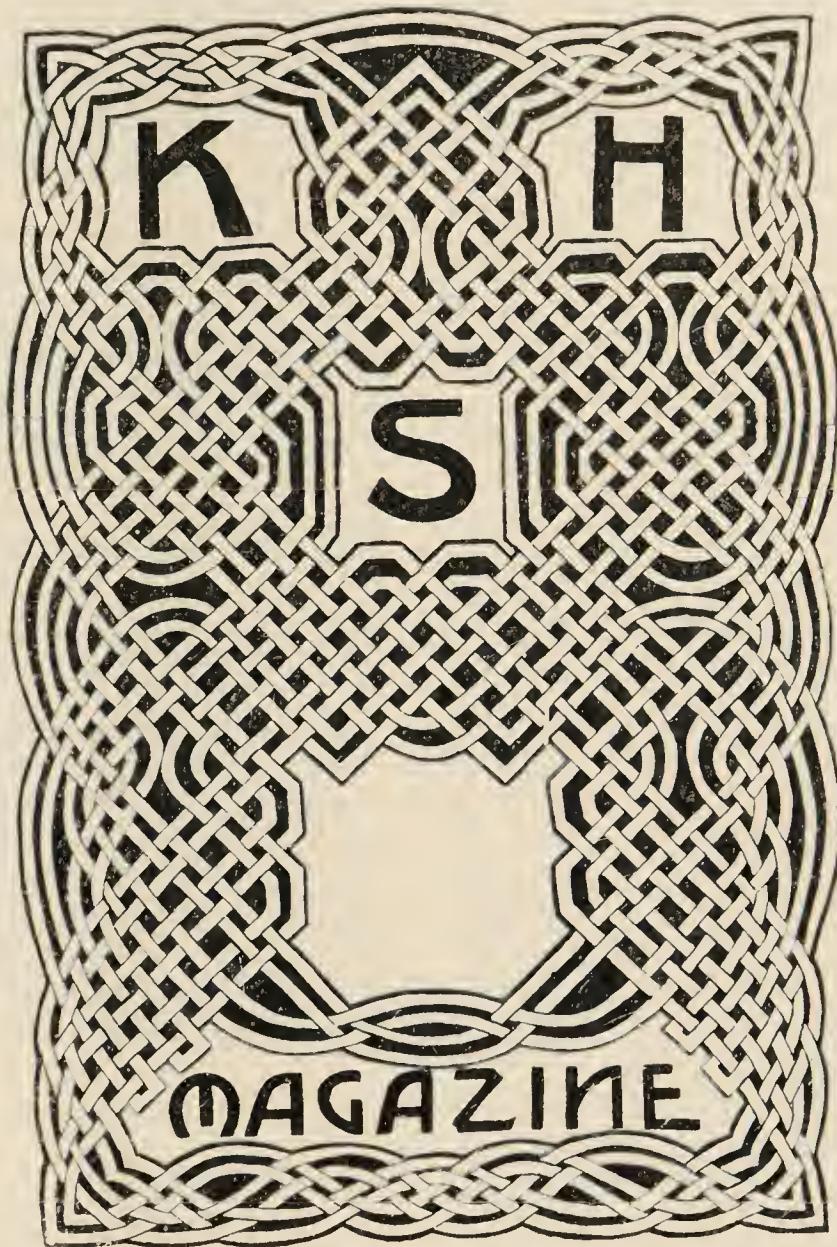
area under my control would react to the lost and forgotten art of their ancestors. There was no reason to suppose that the mere fact of their Celtic or Pictish ancestry would give them a spontaneous delight in the art forms of these peoples. But I am a firm believer in the theory of recapitulation: the first art efforts of the modern infant are similar to the first art efforts of his most primitive ancestors; and however overwhelmingly modern

his environment may appear, the child progresses by a series of art impulses, in an ordered sequence, which correspond to those in the history of his race.

The spiral, key and interlacing patterns, in some form or other, are common features in the arts of all the races of mankind, among pre-historic or present-day primitives. The uncultured and the uneducated will to-day produce patterns of a spiral or interlacing types as a suitable decoration for a newly washed doorstep. On the other hand, the possessor of a cultured brain will often absent-mindedly trace intricate patterns of interlacing scribbles on his blotting pad. These facts

undoubtedly suggest that here is a natural art impulse that has great educational possibilities.

I have personally felt the impulse towards this form of art; but many years of study in various art colleges failed to gratify it, for the methods of construction that are applic-



Designed by a Pupil aged 17

able to the ornamental arts of other nations are of no avail in studying Celtic design. I can look back with horror and amazement on my early days as an art student when I vainly attempted to copy examples of Celtic art by sheer draughtsmanship. Shortly after the war, however, Dr. Galbraith, Dingwall, and Mr. John Duncan, R.S.A., enthusiasts in all things Celtic, opened my eyes. As a result, I discovered some of the methods of producing knot-work, and the work of J. Romilly Allen enabled me to make further progress. A great deal has recently been discovered about the methods used in Celtic art, and much that was difficult has now become easy, though there is still a great deal to be learned. One may safely assume, in fact, that however intricate and difficult a pattern may appear, the method of its construction will nevertheless prove to be extremely simple in itself; and once the method has been grasped, the pattern will be quite easy to reproduce.

The Structure of Celtic Designs

The substructure of Celtic art appears to be the numbering systems. Patterns are merely variations of numerical formulæ. Consequently, the mind of the pupil or artist is not tired out by the process of construction, but it is left keen and eager, able to rejoice in the ultimate completion of a work of art founded upon a mathematical basis. Skilled draughtsmanship, in the accepted sense, is not necessary, and as a result, Celtic art is an activity that many of the school-children who will never produce anything worth while in pictorial art, either in their own or their teacher's estimation, can nevertheless enjoy. It gives them the chance to do some creative work. They may be unable to draw either things or figures, but in spite of this, they can produce this type of design and taste the pleasure that achievement gives. Moreover, though it looks so difficult and complicated, they can do it easily because they have learned the secret; and they have all the satisfaction of knowing that the best artist in the world could not produce an intricate Celtic pattern merely through his skill in draughtsmanship.

The Celtic artists' skilful and deliberate concealment of the methods of construction



Key Patterns designed by Pupils of 14 to 17

is very intriguing to the youthful mind. Art work of this kind is a game, a puzzle to be solved, and as such, it succeeds in holding the pupils' attention; it exercises their intelligence and their inventive powers, and finally it develops their own sense of rhythm and colour. They need never be discouraged by their inability to make their drawings look like something else in nature, for their minds are only occupied with the problem of decoration, and the need for realism or



Key Patterns designed by Pupils of 14 to 17

the conventional treatment of natural objects does not come between them and their problem.

Success of the Experiment

The success of this experiment in art teaching was far greater than my expectations. I began by teaching the children the simple methods for knot-work borders. From the

very first, they were intensely interested and they soon began to discover variations of their own. Then I went on to show them a system of numbering for key pattern borders and all-over key patterns, and again the children not only learnt the method quickly but began to find out rhythms and arrangements of their own in the true Celtic tradition.

At last, I gave them the methods of designing spiral patterns, thinking that this would be far beyond their comprehension. But again I was mistaken: they soon grasped the principles and then proceeded to design spiral patterns of their own. Now, many of my pupils are able to design spirals, keys and interlacings, worked together into one design and sometimes they add a bird or an animal in the Celtic fashion. In fact, many problems of construction are solved by the children, for in attempting to produce other patterns by Celtic methods, they accidentally find the clue to some of the more complicated Celtic arrangements.

Methods of Teaching

It should perhaps be explained that these experiments and the activities resulting from them merely occupy a small portion of the art curriculum and take up only part of the time devoted to the teaching of design and art crafts. Celtic art is, of course, inseparable from the other crafts of embroidery, metal work and wood or other carvings, gesso and wood painting, leather work, pottery and similar crafts.

Space will not allow of a detailed summary of the methods used in teaching Celtic art, but a simple historical example of a border found on stone, jewellery and manuscripts is given. It has not the true interlacing character of much of the Pictish and Irish work, which is always knotted and continuous, and not looped or broken into rings, but it serves as a good illustration of the method of numbering which is sometimes used.

The diagram on the next page shows the way in which some of the more usual Celtic designs are constructed.

STAGE I. A row of equidistant points

STAGE II. Arching from point to point

STAGE III. Breaking and joining

STAGE IV. Turning into bands

STAGE V. Crossing over and under

Many treatments
are possible.

One row
of points

Two rows
of points
arched $\frac{3}{1}$

Two rows
arched $\frac{1}{1}$

Arched
 $\frac{3}{1}$
 $\frac{1}{3}$

One row
arched $\frac{3}{1}$ above
" 2 below

Key borders
constructed
similarly.

Knotwork, bird, key and other patterns have the same beginning

George Bain

An American Teacher Sees English Schools

HELEN EARLE

IMPRESSIONS based upon visiting a few of the many thousands of English schools are certain to be superficial and unsatisfactory. But it is surprising, however, how vivid some of them remain even after one has visited different types of schools, day after day for five or six weeks.

One of the pleasantest of my memories is of the beauty of the vast estates where many of the boarding schools and some of the day schools are situated. Such surroundings must have a very definite effect upon growing boys and girls who are fortunate enough to live in such an atmosphere for nine months of the year. In contrast to all this, however, I was particularly struck by the drab buildings and unattractive classrooms of both free and private schools in which most city children

spend their days. Here and there, individual teachers seem to feel the need of more cheer in their classrooms and secure it by covering part of a solid wall space with posters, or by personally supplying bright pottery and fresh flowers. Others endeavour to escape from this drabness by getting their children out into the open. This is especially true in the Infant Schools where the trouble of moving tables and chairs out of doors and back into the room again seems not in the least to deter the teacher.

Varying Methods

Perhaps the most striking feature of the English schools that I visited is the great variety of their methods and curricula. Certainly there is no central standardization, and even the Council schools of London



Celtic design applied to handicrafts—a rug designed by a Pupil of 14 (see previous article)

differ as widely as do the better private schools throughout the country.

In the Infant Schools of London for instance, there is a wide range of methods used in the introduction to reading. In many schools little four and five year old children industriously work with Montessori materials, tracing the letters with their fingers and associating the corresponding sounds. In other schools, such groups are introduced to reading by the sentence method. In a few schools, children learn by whole-heartedly participating in activities which are purposeful to them, and which not only provide for the learning of reading, numbers and English expression, but also teach the child to live with others and to think independently and constructively. The printed labels, signs and directions that are needed in their play are read for the thought they convey. Stories about their own experiences are dictated by the children, printed in large type by the mistress and then read with interest by the children. In all these schools regardless of the method used, six and seven year old children read orally with more or less the same facility, but those taught by the phonic method do not seem to enjoy reading, nor to comprehend what they read so successfully as do those who are introduced to reading as a thought getting process.

In the Junior schools also the methods vary considerably. Some use the individual method almost exclusively; others combine the weekly or monthly assignments with group work for part of each day; and some use the traditional daily class and assignment for all subjects. In some schools the children are free to plan the various assignments; in their own time; in other schools a rather definite time table is followed for the individual study work. In a few schools, there is a fusing of the various subjects in the pursuit of a group interest, but in almost all the schools, subjects are clearly defined and studied at definite times.

Variations in the Curriculum

Just as great variety seems to exist in the curricula of various schools as in the methods. Some classes of nine year old children have

English grammar, which is studied in other schools by eleven year old children. The work in written and spoken English differs in each school. In many, the written work consists largely of making up sentences to use given words, of answering questions in assignments or of writing so called 'essays' on given subjects that apparently do not grip the interest of the children. Such work is in great contrast to the interesting, purposeful work that is done in other schools where children make books of their own with the written work centering about an interest of individual choice. Other classes prepare composite books and each child attempts to make his or her contribution as valuable as possible. The ability to express ideas clearly with a well chosen vocabulary seems quite general. In some schools oral English is a special feature, and the repetition of prose and poetry is unusually well done.

Handicraft, Art, and Games

The interest in handicrafts manifested by most of the heads of schools also varies. There is comparatively little handwork in most Infant Schools. Many Junior schools, however, manage to have basketry and some kind of weaving no matter how limited the funds they are. A number of schools do considerable work in pottery, and those that are fortunate enough to be equipped with wood working shops and looms do excellent work under the guidance of skilled crafts teachers. In one boys' Public School, the boys made most of the bedroom furniture and even chairs and tables for the general meeting room. In one girls' Public School, moreover, young girls were making reading tables and even bedroom furniture of Japanese oak with the precision of a good cabinet maker. The art work varies widely. In many schools it seems to suffer, as does much of the English work, for want of purpose; it consists too often in copying uninteresting objects. Very little of the work shows that art is considered as a medium of individual expression. Where creative work is done, however, the walls of the rooms are covered with interesting pictures and charts that depict the interest of the children who have painted them.

The same variety exists among the various schools in the attitude toward health. Much time is given to physical education in some schools, very little in others. Many directors, realizing the value of out-of-door exercise arrange for a good portion of time to be spent in this way.

In fact, it seems the schools, free and private, vary as greatly as do the personalities of the Headmasters and Headmistresses. Great freedom is given to these Heads to determine the policy of their respective schools, and they invariably seem able to use this freedom in working out their ideals of education with a spirit of zeal and efficiency which spreads throughout their staff.

Our Individual System

At first it is rather difficult to understand how children can move along in a scheme that is so individual. Later, however, it appears that there are definite milestones along the way. In the Council schools, the Infant school must meet certain requirements of the Junior school. The Junior school must prepare children for the qualifying examinations for Secondary schools at the age of eleven plus. The Secondary school must prepare for First Examinations or School Certificate examinations at the age of sixteen and for the Higher Certificate examinations at the age of eighteen for entrance to the Universities.

These milestones unquestionably tend to mark definite stages of achievement and so bring about a unity in the entire system. There seems to be, however, a lack of continuity in the experience of the children and a lack of unity of policy and understanding between these various departments. One questions the effect of such a complete break in a child's school life at the age of seven or eight years and again at eleven. Adjustments such as these breaks require must be difficult for many children.

There seems to be a question, moreover, in the minds of masters and mistresses of both free and private schools as to whether or not the requirements set for these examinations are wise. In the private preparatory schools, many teachers regret the disproportionate time that must be spent on Latin and mathematics in the Junior classes to meet

the requirements of the Public School examinations.

Character Building

Whether such definite milestones as these required examinations are satisfactory or not, one conclusion can be reached: the children in English schools and their parents do seem to take their education seriously and do assume very definite personal responsibility in the matter. From the youngest to the oldest classes, there is a spirit of industry and seriousness that is quite noticeable. Little three and four year old children work intently and with precision with Montessori materials. Five and six year old children work on difficult addition sums with a remarkable degree of concentration considering their age. Boys and girls in older classes hand in assignments in English or history when they are completed and decide what should be done next with a spirit of satisfaction and growing power in planning their time. In most classes that we visited, along with this seriousness of purpose, there was a joyousness which seems to be a reflection of the seriousness and enthusiasm of the class-room teacher and a result of a spirit of mutual frankness and trust.

The number of boarding schools and the number of very young children in these boarding schools is another interesting but rather surprising feature of the English school system. One wonders what these schools can give such young children that would justify their being deprived of the home influence. The variety in the boarding schools, is also particularly interesting. In contrast to the traditional Public School, there are the experimental schools, some of which are attempting co-education in their effort to furnish a more normal home life, while many boarding schools are working out a middle course, recognizing the necessity of preparation for Universities, but at the same time striving for the fuller development of the individual by giving a course of wider scope, and by affording opportunities for the boys or girls to participate in activities that are concerned with everyday living.

In a country where education is regarded so highly it is surprising to find such large classes

in the County Infant and Junior schools. Yet in spite of this, much individual work is done, and thus every child is given an opportunity to be actively learning. Much harm can be done, nevertheless, unless this individual work is carefully checked and wrong impressions are explained. Anyone who has tried this careful checking and follow-up work with young children realizes the impossibility of adequately accomplishing such a task in large classes.

However, though equipment may be inadequate and classes may be unfortunately large, though methods and curricula may vary widely, there seems to be a general acceptance of common aims; and one of the most apparent of these is to foster a spirit of real scholarship. The well established experimental schools, in their efforts to give the child the opportunity to develop more fully in personality and mental vigor in an atmosphere of relative freedom succeed in maintaining the same high standards of scholarship that the Public Schools maintain and in meeting the requirements of the

Universities. In the County schools also, there is a real scholarly spirit. Furthermore, the highly selective classes in the Secondary schools make possible a high standard of work.

More than scholarship, however, is required of both teachers and children. Unquestionably one of the most highly regarded objectives in English education is character development. Due, perhaps, to the influence of Mme. Montessori, in the lower schools especially, the formal relationship between the teacher and children no longer exists. A wholesome comradeship, fostered by understanding and interest in each child prevails quite generally. The casual assumption that the children will do right seems to be the attitude of the teachers. And the children apparently live up to this standard.

On the whole, one feels that English education has a certain sturdy moral fibre that corresponds to the national character of the English people. Whether the education is responsible for, or whether it is the result of the moral stamina of English society is a question.

The Changing Curriculum—II

The Teaching of Literature: Reading and Poetry

J. COMPTON

Literature no longer suffers from being used as a subject of grammatical analysis in Primary Schools; and in Senior Schools its chief danger comes from methods of teaching which tend to encourage sentimentalism and emotionalism. Everyone would agree that the teaching of literature must be vigorous and stimulating. It must arouse and capture interest with the charm of the unexpected. But the need for a well-founded and closely thought out technique is not so generally realized.

In this series of articles, we are dealing with the teaching of English to boys and girls of 11 to 14. Most of them come from homes in which literature means nothing and the children themselves have no gift for literary study. Their conception of literature and its importance in their own lives will depend on the way in which they are introduced to it during their last years at school. It is almost impossible to over-estimate the importance of the personality of the teacher through whom they come in contact with literature. His work should be unique and individual. It should express his own reaction and that of his pupils to a form of art.

There are therefore certain qualities which he must have: he must sincerely believe that literature can influence human life; he must be sufficiently widely read and sufficiently familiar with the works of great authors to possess sound literary judgment, at any rate within certain limits; he must have sympathy and understanding enough to be able to handle boys and girls whose feelings and imagination are stirred by beauty suddenly revealed. He must not talk carelessly about inspiration or soul. He must be sparing in his use of the word 'beauty' and he must not talk about nature when he means hills, valleys and fields. He must also remember that basically literature deals with 'what one would do if one were someone else. . . . and how other people exist and do things'. He must take up a level-headed and detached attitude and consider the subject as coolly as if it were a scientific problem. Provided that the teacher himself has a thorough knowledge of the subject and has faith in the influence of literature he will have no difficulty in revealing its beauty to his pupils and in arousing their enthusiasm. One of the main purposes of a literature

lesson should be to stimulate curiosity and, by enabling a child to discriminate between fact and fiction, to teach him to appreciate the meaning of emotional and intellectual honesty.

Avoid the Abstract

Any passage whether of prose or verse which has been understood and enjoyed will gain rather than lose by a detailed study of its structure. There are obviously some exceptions—the beauty of certain lyrics is so rare that it is clearly impossible and unwise to try and analyse it; but a discovery of the elements out of which poems are created—emotion, sound, imagery and thought—can be an unexpected source of interest and delight. If the average child can be brought to understand the difference between mere dreaming and its translation into poetry he will have made a very considerable intellectual and spiritual advance.

Any attempt at a survey of English literature as a whole should be avoided, nor is there anything to be gained by a systematic study of the works of one particular author. Books should be read because they have proved to be a success with children and biographical information about the author should always be restrained: as given to children it is often incomplete and misleading and it frequently tends to acquire a fictitious romanticism.

Teaching Children to Read

The fallacy that most people like reading is widespread: probably many syllabuses were affected by it in the past. Actually, however, though most people make use of printed matter in the sense that they read newspapers, advertisements and books, very few of them read in the true sense of the word. True reading involves a certain amount of mental exertion on the part of the reader: it is not a denial of life but an extension of experience. But the majority of men and women merely read in order to escape from the dreariness of daily life. The best type of reader, the person with a definite literary gift or with an insatiable desire for knowledge, will always be in a minority. Most of the boys and girls in our schools will belong to the mass of men and women who are not true readers and whose tastes in books are extremely simple. It is for us to provide these boys and girls with the kind of teaching which will encourage them to explore the possibilities of literature and will really meet their needs.

It is apparently often assumed that literature can be graded so that the average boy or girl can be made to progress from the 'penny dreadful' through various stages until he or she is eventually able to appreciate the masterpieces of English literature. But this is not the case: the average man or woman does not enjoy Wordsworth or Hazlitt. Their powers of appreciation are very limited, but within certain limits they can nevertheless be taught to discriminate between good and bad.

The bulk of the children in the Senior Schools will grow up to be this kind of reader and books will probably never mean very much in their lives.

There are others—a minority—who have a definite taste for books, and their chief need is for access to as many books as possible. In addition there are the poor readers who have never mastered the mechanics of reading and therefore read too slowly to derive much pleasure from it.

The teacher's special aim should be to help the first group—the majority—to understand what reading can mean to the ordinary person both as a pleasure and as a means of acquiring information.

The Four Types of Reading

There are four types of reading for which every syllabus should provide:—

1. Independent reading, mainly stories.
2. Some reading which will serve as an introduction to literature.
3. A type of reading superficially less attractive than (1) but easier than (2). This is best done in groups.
4. Some reading, largely in connection with hobbies and leisure hour interests, which will teach the child to read for information and to develop his critical powers.

A syllabus for children from 12 to 14 should include:—

- (a) a play, possibly from Shakespeare,
- (b) some book which is definitely interesting but which may be rather difficult for independent reading, *e.g.* a Scott novel,
- (c) some reading definitely chosen in order to arouse the interest of those who have no natural taste for books,
- (d) some passages from the Bible.

Most of the independent reading should be done at home. Apart from the fact that there is no time for it at school, it is most important that boys and girls should realize as early as possible that books exist for their own personal pleasure and do not belong solely to school hours. The choice of books must of course depend on the interests of each child and every teacher will have to face the difficulties created by the popularity of the 'penny dreadful'. 'Penny dreadfuls' are not usually intrinsically harmful, but they are generally badly written and their unrestrained exaggerations injure the child's nascent sense of proportion which the teacher is endeavouring to foster. In addition most 'penny dreadfuls' are very badly printed and produced. The teacher must recognize the attraction of this type of story and he can do great service by introducing children to the better type of 'bloods' such as *Huckleberry Finn*, for instance.

The Organization of Class Reading

The dreary practice of reading aloud round the class has long since gone out of fashion and there has been a reaction in favour of silent reading. Under this system each child is usually set down to a different book. But, unfortunately, unless it is very carefully supervised, silent reading can degenerate into aimless meandering, and thus provide excellent opportunities for idling. If it is

to be satisfactory the teacher must keep in touch with the work of each child. An attempt has been made to solve the problem by providing the child with a set of questions to be answered when the book is finished; but apart from the fact that no teacher can be expected to know forty books intimately, the answer to these questions will tend to become formal and remote exercises in written composition. They lack the intimacy of oral questions and the teacher cannot share in the children's enjoyment.

All reading should preferably be tested orally, and therefore it is impossible to give each child a different book and it is equally undesirable to have them all reading the same book; for any class will divide itself into several groups, all varying in the ease and speed with which they read.

Reading Sections

These difficulties can be overcome if the system of reading groups is adopted. The class is divided into different sections each reading a different book. The books are divided into parts for each of which an allotted time is allowed. When the various assignments are completed, the groups meet for discussion. The teacher acts as leader; he puts questions, unravels misunderstandings, emphasizes certain points and makes sure that the work has really been understood and appreciated.

In this way three books a year can be read by each child. The discussions must of course take place regularly and the children should not only grasp the story, understand the characters and their motives but they should also be enabled to make some judgment of what is to be admired and what condemned. They should derive inspiration from the story of noble deeds and above all they should learn that literature is not an escape from reality but an incentive to action.

An experienced reader possesses the advantage of being able to concentrate on the sections of a book which are important for him and skimming the remainder. The child who learns how to fasten on the essentials in a book and to disregard the unimportant passages learns to exercise his critical faculty, and it is a good plan to make a reading group mark the passages which they consider important in the book which they are studying. An experienced teacher knows that it is essential to secure reasonably rapid reading from his class. There is no longer any doubt that the child who reads slowly finds it difficult to understand what he has read and easily forgets. On the other hand the child who reads quickly generally retains and understands what he has read.

The Importance of Libraries

Ideally speaking every Senior School should have its own library, and in spite of the prevalent financial depression we can still look forward to the time when the Senior Schools will have a large number of books which the children can borrow and take home. Generally speaking the best type of school library is the one in which there is the largest

number of books, and they should be of as many different kinds as possible, with fiction predominating. Clearly no book which is obviously undesirable will be purchased for the library, but it is much more likely that the censorship of books will be too severe rather than too lenient.

Every pupil in the Senior School should be taught how to use a library, how to use a catalogue, how to look up words in the dictionary, and how to judge rapidly whether a book is suitable for his particular purpose. Lists of recommended books are provided for the pupils at many schools, and it is very desirable that additions to these lists should be made by the pupils themselves. The teacher of literature might well find that these book lists provided him with excellent topics for class discussions, and it is interesting to observe that a school book club often grows quite easily out of the use of the school library and the public library in conjunction with one another.

Co-operation between schools and public libraries is clearly desirable but is not yet fully achieved. Teachers and librarians are both busy and each views the problem differently. It is obviously important that the public librarian should know the teacher's views on books in the library, and if he could consult the teacher before making later book purchases his co-operation would prove very valuable.

The Teaching of Poetry

Poetry, if it matters to us at all, affects our lives and actions. We too often tend to think of it as an elegance of civilized existence, a decoration of drawing-room gentility, whereas, in truth, poetry, if it does matter, matters in the same way as religion does. It provides us with a meaning for things otherwise inexplicable, and establishes syntheses in the confused welter and multitude of unrelated happenings as they come to us day by day. If we understand poetry well, we understand ourselves better.

Poetry and Children

In introducing children to poetry, there are certain points which must be remembered: (1) we must treat poetry as poetry. It should not be made an excuse for a lesson in biography or history nor should it serve as a test for a moral lecture; (2) it is what one likes in poetry that counts—not what one does not like; (3) if a poem really has meaning for us, it will always give pleasure: if we find a poem hackneyed, either it is not a great poem, or we have never understood it; (4) poetry has an intellectual as well as an emotional warmth; (5) children who enjoy poetry invariably want to learn it by heart; (6) poetry exists for everybody: it does not only appeal to the poetry lovers.

Children rarely understand or appreciate poems which they read for themselves, their interest is only captured by verse when it is read or spoken about. It is therefore essential that the teacher should be able to read aloud well, and, as a corollary, poems that are too fine or too subtle or too obscure

to bear this treatment ought not to be taken with children.

In reading aloud the essentials are first, to understand the poem, and second, to read it straightforwardly. Elocutionism is out of date, and there should be no place for it in school. A beautiful voice is a gift to be cherished; fine technique is an advantage—but neither is essential. If the reader can speak the poem so that he forgets himself, his reading will give pleasure; the first thing he must learn to do is to get out of the way of the poet.

Selecting Poems

The teacher and his class constitute a unit which is in many ways unique, and in the choice of poems, the teacher's judgment is constantly needed. Children unaided are rarely able to make a good choice: they select a poem because of some familiar association or some image which takes their fancy, or because it can be connected with some recent pleasant mood. The poems chosen should cover the widest possible range; but no poem which is not of the first excellence should be included. As many lyrics and narrative poems as possible should be selected, but elegies, satires, *vers d'occasion* and meditative verse should be omitted. Poems should be chosen because of a kinship of mood—not of form, and they should not be linked by title; Shelley's *Skylark*, for instance, should not be bracketed with Hogg's. It is often argued that poems which are hackneyed for the teacher are fresh for the children; but if the poem is not liked by the teacher there is little chance of the children liking it. In grouping poems a similarity of prosodic form should never be made the link; probably the best and simplest method is to group poems by their rhythms, galloping, dancing, solemn or stately.

A Three Years' Course for Senior Schools

A course for Senior Schools should include (1) all Shakespeare's songs, (2) a number of ballads—some are not suitable, but many are excellent: *Sir Patrick Spens*, *Earl Marr's Daughter*, *Cherry Tree Carol*, *Ballad of Otterbourne*, *Binnorie*, *Alison Gross*, *Hind Horn*, *Kinmont Willie*, *Wife of Usher's Well*, *Wee Wee Man*, *Arran Water*; (3) some familiar poems of the greater poets, Wordsworth, Shelley, Keats, Tennyson, Macaulay, Browning, Stevenson, Herrick, Coleridge; a judicious selection from Spenser and Milton, Blake, Burns, Cowper and John Clare, Longfellow (the good only), some of Matthew Arnold's short poems; A. H. Clough, what one can of Swinburne, and a little of William Morris; (4) lighter verse: Chesterton and Belloc, Carroll, Lear, Gilbert; (5) modern poetry that is in the main tradition: Brooke, Drinkwater, Bridges, Walter de la Mare, W. H. Davies, etc., but not the modernists.

Studying a Poem

It is impossible to be dogmatic about the way any poem should be handled; so much depends

on the teacher and on the class, on the amount of reading they have done and on their mood at the time. A class of children over 11 can be a most attractive audience, and if the class is bored, the teacher should consider whether the poem he has read is in itself a good poem and whether he, as a teacher, has dealt with it sensibly.

There are three kinds of poems: (1) the poem which needs no preliminary explanation and can be read straight through, *e.g.* Turner's *Romance*; (2) the poem which needs an introduction since a certain amount of information is necessary to make children understand the situation with which the poet deals; (3) poems of such intrinsic delicacy that the children's minds must be tuned in to receive their delicate intimation. It is here that the artistic tact and gift of the teacher is put to the test. Such poems as *Arabia*, *I wandered lonely as a cloud*, *La Belle Dame sans Merci*, come into this category. It is important to see that the introduction does not obscure the poem itself and the best preparation for such poems is the reading of another poem which will lead up to them.

Children should never refer to the text of the poem while the teacher is reading it, but afterwards they should read it for themselves and ask questions about it. It is a mistake to try and guide these questions or to attempt to probe the deeper meaning of the poem. We should be content if we get sensible questions, and not hope for sensitive ones. Sensitiveness, if it is aroused, will show itself in some other way, for language is a clumsy tool for the child. He will be dimly conscious of the things he knows the poet meant, there will be other things he half understands, and yet others he knows he did not understand. Help the child over his half-discernments, but do not touch on what he does not understand.

Metre

In studying a poem, the final stage leads on to the study of metrical form. If it is taken properly, this can be lively and stimulating; if it is taken badly it can be very dull. The teacher must be certain of his own ground, for an inadequate knowledge of prosody is exceedingly dangerous.

The study of metrical form should begin with rhythm, and children should appreciate the basic fact that whenever people are moved their speech is rhythmic. Prose rhythms are not always clear, but many passages in the Bible will serve as examples. Then illustrate the simple rhythms of familiar poems. And if the class is keen and interested, it may be possible to get the children to discover for themselves the essential difference between Prose and Verse: that in verse the recurrent beat comes at fixed intervals.

When the children can recognize the simpler rhythms, they can go on to the study of stanza forms and rhymes. Most children enjoy discovering and marking the rhymes in such a poem as the *Forsaken Merman*. Each teacher must decide for himself whether he will teach children to recognize prosodic

feet, but there is a strong case against doing so, for directly really interesting verse is taken, anomalous forms are found and the realm of controversy is reached.

Children can then be taught the main verse forms—lyrics, sonnet, blank verse, the octo-syllabic couplet and the heroic couplet. They must be shown that the meaning and music of a poem are inseparable, that the poet gives uniqueness to all the words he uses.

Writing Verse

Verse writing has only recently been introduced into the curriculum and it is not yet possible to assess its value. On the whole it is good provided that it takes its place honestly in the curriculum, and is taught with the same care as any other school subject. It is not likely to do much damage and there is no doubt that it can be delightful when it is well taught. It gives a valuable training in the exact use of words and it is also an excellent way of teaching the elements of prosody.

The class should work as a community, starting with rhythm and going on to rhymes and line length. Then they can learn to write in a definite metre. It is best to give them a couple of lines as a take off, and these should preferably be humorous or

fantastic. The usual faults will be irregularities in line length, and false rhymes. Try to get the children to understand that a writer has to express, from a personal point of view, his *recollection* of things seen, heard or felt.

Speaking Verse

Children should be taught the difference between acting and speaking verse. Choral verse speaking is still in its experimental stage, but if it is treated rightly, it is a valuable exercise for three reasons: (1) the self-conscious or diffident child is put at ease, (2) the children learn to understand what is meant by pitch, vowel value and rhythm, (3) it gives them an ear for good speech. The poems chosen for choral speaking should not be personal or introspective; they should have sufficient scope and strength to bear this treatment while the subject and emotions expressed should be such that numbers of people might reasonably speak them aloud. If choral speaking is able to do all that its advocates claim, it will become a new form of artistic expression. But though some examples of verse speaking are very moving, others are very distressing, and it seems probable that the problem of its future will finally be settled in the class-room.

International Notes

FELLOWSHIP NEWS

World Fellow Teas

Overseas visitors are finding their way to the World Fellow teas. On a recent afternoon there were members from Australia, China, America, Denmark, Holland, S. Africa and Switzerland. The talks in June were given by Miss S. Gardiner (S. Africa), Mr. A. Yusuf Ali (Punjab), Miss Irene Ho (China), Dr. Ruth McMurphy (U.S.A.) and Dr. Paul Heinrichsdorff (Germany). The hostesses were Mrs. E. Hunter, Miss Ho and Miss Gardiner.

Tea is served at 29 Tavistock Square between 4.30 and 6 every Friday afternoon to World Fellows and members.

Glasgow

A course of six lectures, for parents and others interested in the upbringing of children, entitled *Training Children for Happiness*, is being given at the University of Glasgow by Dr. William Boyd, President of the Glasgow Centre of the *New Education Fellowship*, and Dr. W. B. Inglis.

London

The Headquarters of the *Fellowship* has arranged an educational tour for twenty-three members of the Swedish Kindergarten Teachers' Association. They are visiting modern infant and junior schools and are making a particular study of Montessori and Dalton work and also of Eurhythmics, speech training and handwork. The party is being joined by visitors from Egypt, Finland and the United States.

OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

Children's Museum of the Chicago Century of Progress

The Director is anxious to assemble a small collection representative of the work done in English and Continental Schools. The age limit is fifteen years, and only drawings or paintings are required. The exhibition starts in October, but all those who are interested should write at once to Mr. Raymond O'Neil, Director of Children's Gallery, Chicago Century of Progress, Administration Building, Burnham Park, Chicago, Illinois.

International Federation of Home and School

The fourth Conference and third Biennial Meeting of the *International Federation of Home and School* will be held in Dublin, Ireland, on 3rd August. Mrs. A. H. Reeve, of Philadelphia, will preside; reports of officers, directors and committee chairmen will be presented and there will be an open Forum upon the *Home and School Movement* as it is developing in various countries. All delegates to the *World Federation of Education Associations* who are interested in home and school co-operation are invited to attend. The Educational Programme of the *Federation* is to be presented on 29th and 31st July and in the evening of 3rd August.

We learn, also from the *International Federation of Home and School*, that the *First Social Congress on the Child*, held in the Argentine, voted to establish a National Council for Child Welfare. It is also announced that the *Child Study Association* of

America will hold two autumn conferences, one in October on *Study Groups*, and one in January on the *Family and its Functions To-day*.

A New International Club

We are glad to draw our readers' attention to the recently formed *Weltklub* or *Welt-Union*, which exists largely to promote a friendly understanding between the youth of different nations. Its central offices are at 35 and 36 Luneburgerstrasse, Magdeburg. It appeals particularly to University or school students and language teachers, and it runs an exchange visit service. There are at present 800 members from 34 different countries. Those who are interested should write to the founder, Herr Johannes Classen, at Magdeburg.

Grith Fyrd Camps

We have already referred in these columns to the excellent work which is being done by this organization in Great Britain in forming permanent camp communities for the unemployed. When fully equipped, the camps will approximately maintain themselves, and they form a community where young men of varied experience and outlook can compare views and work together. The first camps are at Godshill, near Fordingbridge, New Forest. Contributions are urgently needed to enable other camps to be started and the address of the organization is Toynbee Hall, London, E.1.

International Exhibition of Children's Drawings

An International Exhibition of Children's Drawings will be held in Moscow this summer. It is being organized by the Andrei Bubnov Central Home for the Teaching of Art to Children, and exhibits are being sent in from America, France, Germany, Great Britain, Holland, Japan, Spain, and other countries. A great feature of the exhibition will be the presentation of specimens of children's work from the different national minorities inhabiting the Soviet Union. Drawings from the extreme North of the Union and from the subtropical South provide curious contrasts. The drawings from the North resemble the cave art of the Stone Age and are grey and monotonous in tone and composition. The drawings from the South, on the contrary, are a riot of flowers and colour. The exhibits include the work of children between the ages of 6 and 17.

NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION

ALL those who have to do with Nursery Schools—and particularly with Schools in the poorer districts—must find considerable interest in the present campaign for slum clearance and re-housing which is meeting with such wide publicity and support. Schemes of rebuilding hold out many hopes; a safe return for the investor, contracts for the builder and the prospect of increased employment. Our concern, however, is with the inhabitants of the dwellings to be erected and particularly with the younger children. The putting up of new blocks of

working-class flats offers an opportunity for providing adequate care for these most vulnerable members of the population which is surely not to be missed. It should not be impossible to include Nursery School accommodation in the building of new flats. One school, which may be built at no exorbitant cost, may serve a number of blocks of dwellings, increasing greatly the popularity of the buildings and affording a real service to the tenants and to the children themselves.

That this is not merely a fantasy of the enthusiast is shown by the admirable work already done on these lines. The St. Pancras House Improvement Society has built an excellent nursery school in the new St. Christopher's Flats in Somers Town. The school is on the top floor. It has a large playroom facing south, with windows running the length of the south wall and big double doors. Through ventilation is secured by ventilators in the North Wall. These are of an amusing and original pattern, illustrating well the personal care and thought for detail which is conspicuous everywhere in the St. Christopher's School. You pull a rope and a picture of a parrot appears on a panel in the wall. The ventilator is closed. You pull another rope. The parrot goes and the ventilator is open. Bathroom and lavatories are excellently fitted and the whole school is well and compactly designed. Heating and cooking are all by electricity. It will be interesting, when the school has been running a little longer to see how costs compare with other methods. The convenience is obvious.

But how are the essential open-air conditions provided? At present somewhat inadequately, by taking the children downstairs and out of doors. This, however, is a purely temporary arrangement. At right-angles to the St. Christopher's Flats and adjoining them, a new block, the St. Francis' Flats, is in process of erection. The roof of this block will provide the playground and open-air quarters of the Nursery School, access to it being obtained directly through the doors of the playroom. The playground is designed to contain a garden-room, flower-beds, fountain, sandpit and paddling-pool and will provide for the children's open-air play and rest. The chimneys are kept to the sides in order to leave the maximum of unobstructed space.

Whether the top storey and roof garden present the ideal of nursery school premises is perhaps open to discussion. Although the height must secure more wind and removal from the noise of the streets, careful protection and screening will be needed if the children are to have the advantages of the sun-traps that can be designed on the ground level. The stairs are a formidable proposition.

This is one experiment. Although the future playground now presents only a jumble of scaffolding and unfinished brickwork, the school, which is in full swing, is proving its worth. That there is room for many more such experiments no member of the Nursery School Association will doubt. The present time seems in many ways propitious for further developments, developments that can be procured, however, only by hard work and extended efforts to

give publicity to the present schools. It is unfortunate that the funds of the Nursery School Association are now at unusually low ebb, for financial support is necessary if we are to exert our full influence in pushing for further schools.

But this is a matter where every member can help, if not by procuring donations, by making known our activities and obtaining new members. The Association needs not only more money but far wider support than it has at present if its work is to be effective.

Nursery School Association Conference

For the forthcoming Conference of the Nursery School Association, which will be held from 30th June to 3rd July, at Digswell Park, Welwyn, a very thorough study of the two-year-old is planned. Dr. Isaacs and Dr. Lowenfeld will lecture on the psychological aspects of the problem. Miss Abrahams

will talk on Nursery School Diet and Miss Drummond on the two-year-old and the Nursery School. Thus the care of the two-year-old will be viewed from many aspects. But it is not expected that our lecturers will do all the work and a full discussion is anticipated. The teacher in a Nursery School may be a very busy person but it is hoped that many teachers and others who have to do with children will be able to bring to the Conference the results of their own observations. We certainly have yet a great deal to learn about the two-year-old and no one has such ready material for observation as the teacher. The trained research worker is by no means the only one who can contribute to the problem. With such expert help and guidance as will be available at the Conference, it should be possible to marshal the observations of the members who are intimately concerned with young children in such a way as to form a real addition to our knowledge.

Book Reviews

The New Background of Science. *Sir James Jeans.* (Cambridge University Press. 7s. 6d.)

In his new book, Sir James Jeans sets before himself two very difficult tasks. The first is to synthesize the theories of mathematic physics, to reveal their foundations and explain their apparent contradictions, and to present the whole picture in a coherent and intelligible form; the second is to examine the philosophical implications of such a picture of the Universe.

From the nature of the case, a book which attempts these things cannot be easy, and despite the assistance of a gift for exposition and a delightfully clear style, Sir James Jeans has presented us with some very difficult reading. Yet probably no man alive could have stated his argument more simply and clearly. The mathematical portions are set out with great skill and in such a way that anyone possessing a nodding acquaintance with mathematics can follow the reasoning, although only the most expert mathematicians could fully understand them, and most of us must perforce take them on trust.

Sir James Jeans achieves his first task triumphantly. The reader is left with a feeling that he really understands why one method of approach leads to a particle theory while another method presents waves instead of particles; and why the momentum of an electron can have no meaning at all until the electron comes into contact with matter. If a wave concept merely expresses the probability of the presence of a particle at points in the space time continuum, the speed *or* the position of a particle can be known but never both; and if the wave itself represents knowledge of photons rather than photons themselves, the difficulty we feel in dealing sometimes with particles and sometimes with waves begins to disappear, and the fact that the coarsegrainedness of the photon expresses a limiting factor of our knowledge becomes evident.

But the second task is even harder than the first. The writer has to guide the minds of his readers among unaccustomed concepts, and the reader has to follow him as he builds a philosophy upon the foundation of these concepts.

It must be said at once that Sir James' examination of the problem is far more thorough than it was in *The Mysterious Universe*, and that his discussion is no longer open to much of the criticism that was levelled against statements which were after all *obiter dicta* in that essay.

In illuminating fashion Sir James Jeans argues that the determinism of wave-mechanics is purely statistical; while the determinism of the particle theory demands accurate knowledge of the positions and velocities of the particles, which Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle declares to be impossible. He concludes that 'we can retain *either* the space-time representation of the older picture of nature *or* the strict determinism, *but never both*' (p. 257).

He points out that if we change our conception of waves as representing probabilities of *particles* existing at points in space-time into probabilities of *happenings* in space-time we escape the illusion that the universe consists of matter persisting in time or extended in space, and realize that *events* are the fundamental objective realities. 'It follows that therefore there is no longer any reason . . . why the two (mind and events) should not interact'. For if volitions and molecules are not too dissimilar in nature for interaction to be possible there can be no physical argument against 'sorting demons' who interfere with the course of nature (p. 277) always provided that the key is of the same nature as the lock (p. 282). It also follows that we are driven to regard even the continuum as limited and that 'when we so treat it we find we have reduced the whole of nature to a mental concept' (p. 293).

Sir James himself inclines to this idealistic interpretation—the fitting of key and lock—though he admits that the pendulum may swing back towards materialism.

In so far as he moves towards an absolute, Sir James leaves us with the puzzle of events which are wholly mental yet are such that 'mathematics is the alphabet of the language in which nature is written', and which are discovered and examined by experimental methods. The mathematician does not force mathematical laws upon nature; they seem to be inherent in nature; and yet the result of following such laws to their logical issue appears to translate the objective reality of nature into the mental sphere while retaining the power of prediction in the sphere of sensation-perceived events. Though his position is more guardedly stated than it was in *The Mysterious Universe*, Sir James Jeans seems still to incline towards an identification of mind with mathematics. He finds (p. 296) that the new and great discovery of science that a mathematical picture fits nature, must 'have some sort of translation in the language of reality' and concludes *from this* that reality is somehow mental.

Space forbids much discussion of the problem of free will, which is condemned by Einstein as nonsensical in a recent book though the latter guards his condemnation by the careful phrase 'free will in nature' whatever that may mean. But Jeans allows that the closed circle of physical science shows crevices, and argues that if nature is fundamentally mind, human volition may be able to pass through them and affect the operations of nature.

Though the philosopher may not be entirely satisfied with this treatment of the problem, he will generally welcome the emphasis on causality which establishes his objective reality. Sir James Jeans especially makes a weighty contribution to the problem of causality itself. Nevertheless it seems doubtful whether some of the aspects of life—evolution for instance—are amenable to mathematical treatment; yet evolution is as much a datum as a molecule is. It is obvious that the *material basis* of life is so amenable, and we may agree that vitalism is a useless and dangerous doctrine; but if there is *anything* in life which does not yield to mathematical treatment there must be a region outside mathematics. If this be so, the absolute must include it as well as mathematical arrangement; and this would perhaps render Sir James Jeans' philosophical position inadequate.

Whatever judgment may be formed in the course of time on this and other matters, one thing is certain, namely that Sir James Jeans' critical analysis of the present position is a most remarkable achievement. It is at once brilliant and sober; and it is intelligible. It will be surprising if his expositions do not rank for a long time as the indispensable prolegomena to studies of the problem of nature.

S. A. McDowall.

The Great Technology: Social Chaos and the Public Mind. Harold Rugg. (*The John Day Company.* 2.50.)

What answer has the New Education to make to the challenge which the world crisis extends to every intelligent human being? Harold Rugg answers from the other side of the Atlantic, and his answer has a strong American accent. His problem is the American problem, as it should be, and his solution is an American solution, as it might not have been. The Americanness of the discussion needs to be stressed for the appreciation of Professor Rugg's splendid effort to find a way through social chaos. It explains on the one hand the boldness with which the difficulties are faced, the strength and honesty of the analysis of the facts of the world situation; and the willingness to contemplate the possibility of stupendous social changes. And on the other hand, it explains the absence of a sense of political realities, characteristic of a people whose university men lack first hand acquaintance with the business of government, and the want of an effective social philosophy capable of doing justice to both personal and social interests.

The gospel of the new technology is a gospel with many 'ifs'. Here is its author's final summing up: 'A civilization of abundance, tolerance and beauty can be ushered in—If Man having built an efficient production system designs and operates a controlled and equitable system of distribution; If Man combines technological operation with democratic control; If Man establishes government by consent of the governed through education in tolerant and critical understanding; If Man having reduced the twelve-hour day to the six-hour or the four-hour day develops also the capacity for creative labour and the wise use of leisure; in a word, If Man applies the scientific method to Man-Man relationships as well as to the Man-Thing relationships and lives creatively as Artist as well as Technologist.' How is all this to be accomplished? Only through an education which will change the habits and attitudes of ten generations of Americans accustomed to think in terms of personal success.

This implies an entire change in the climate of public opinion, notably by the re-education of the twenty or twenty-five million of the most intelligent Americans. Only when this influential minority has been led through a nation-wide discussion to appreciate the basic issues of life will it be possible to set aside the self-seeking politicians, financiers, technicians, etc., who under present conditions exercise a virtual dictatorship over their fellows, and condemn them to narrowness and penury in a world overflowing with the ever increasing wealth of the new technology.

The assumption is that given the clear thinking that comes out of open informed discussion on the part of people educated for life rather than for literacy, a planned economy of 'abundance, tolerance and beauty' will inevitably result. But will it? Is this not just the old familiar fallacy of intellectualism with its childlike faith in right thinking leading inevitably to right action?

This is not to say that Professor Rugg has not got a hold of some essential truths of the utmost value in the present crisis. It is true that if people could see clearly what is involved in any change proposed there would be a greater likelihood of progress in the right direction. It is true that, if man will, the enormous productivity of the machine makes possible the development of rich personalities through creative labour and artistic self-expression, and that the only way into this new heritage is through education.

But it is no use shutting our eyes to the barriers in the way of progress, not only in the mighty forces of self-interest but in the even mightier forces of mass stupidity, prejudice and ignorance. Nothing can remove these but a mighty faith and many generations of new educators working persistently for the regeneration of mankind.

Here indeed is the greatest weakness in Professor Rugg's gospel. His eyes are set towards a new era but this ideal of a world of craftsmen and artists bent on realizing their personalities has in it nothing of the faith that removes mountains, and nothing less will avail.

The pity is that Professor Rugg's weakness is also America's weakness. The doctrine of personal values, which is the critical principle of trans-Atlantic philosophy, will have to be transformed by a linking up of personality values with social values and cosmic values before America can hope to escape from her own special chaos or to help the world to escape from its chaos. In a word, what America needs is not only a new technology but a new religion, and as yet there is no light in the West.

William Boyd.

Education and the Poor White. *E. G. Malherbe.*
(*Carnegie Commission.*)

The Report of the Carnegie Commission of Investigation on 'The Poor White Question in South Africa' is a very remarkable document. It contains a series of profoundly interesting and valuable suggestions which cannot fail to indicate to those whose business it will be to deal with this terribly difficult subject, many wise directions in which future legislation may prove effective in ameliorating to a considerable extent the distressing state of things which undoubtedly exists.

During the visit of the British Association to South Africa in 1930, the members were much impressed by a singularly eloquent and powerful address which Dr. Malherbe delivered to the Education Section on 'The Poor White' in which he pointed the way, now fully confirmed by the Commission's Report, in which the problem might usefully be attacked.

The Commission went to work in a most business-like manner, not by calling witnesses to give evidence before a formal group of Experts at Cape Town or Johannesburg, but by the members going themselves to various typical districts and obtaining first-hand information as to the conditions which actually exist in different localities and the methods

adopted to relieve the all-too-obvious distress of the Poor White. Such investigations proved conclusively the necessity of providing methods of treatment suitable to a particular area and the impossibility of devising schemes suitable for all cases alike.

The most difficult problem arises when a group of Poor Whites is always on the move from one neighbourhood to another lower down the scale of suitable occupations. To maintain in such a case even the semblance of normal family life is well-nigh impossible and a serious deterioration sets in with its accompanying inferiority complex. Even under such abnormally serious conditions cases were found by intelligence tests showing that some members had a high standard of native ability and under favourable circumstances would have been worthy of University Education.

In Urban centres the difficulties are easier of solution. Here possibilities of technical training provide the necessary stimulus for release from the lower standards of employment.

Among the conclusions reached by the Commission are the following suggestions:—

- (1) Better education with more vocational and practical methods.
- (2) More special training for girls in home-making.
- (3) Means should be found for landless young men having suitable opportunities for advancement.
- (4) The Dalton and similar systems should be used in dealing with the curriculum of the ordinary school.
- (5) Compulsory education up to an age limit of at least fifteen years.
- (6) Considerable changes should be made in the training of teachers.
- (7) Education for control of the environment is as important as education as compensation.
- (8) The acquirement of specific skills should receive particular attention.
- (9) Full use should be made of the radio for teaching English to the rural child and for keeping the whole of the rural community in touch with civilization.

C. W. Kimmins.

The League of Nations in Theory and Practice. *C. K. Webster.* With some chapters on International Co-operation, by Sidney Herbert. (George Allen & Unwin. 10s.)

Books on the *League of Nations* usually fall into one of two categories; either they are propagandist in intention or they are learned monographs written by experts for experts. The practical teacher who wishes to obtain accurate knowledge of the subject for professional purposes is rightly chary of using the first and finds the second unsuited to his needs. The volume under review is notable in that it was written at the suggestion of the *British National Committee on Intellectual Co-operation*—with these needs definitely in mind and it meets them better than any other book with which we are acquainted.

The authors began their task with an immense initial advantage inasmuch as they had been engaged for a decade in giving instruction on the subject under the auspices of the Wilson Chair of International Relations, at University College, Aberystwyth. They know, therefore, what the teacher wants. If young people are to be interested in the *League of Nations*, it must not be presented to them as a mere complex of Councils, Assemblies and Committees. They want to know what it was intended to do, how it sets about doing it, and how far it has been successful; and if the teacher is to succeed in stimulating their interest, he must know these things also. The authors are well aware of this and have striven to make their account of the League a study of a 'growing concern'. Of course they have described the League's machinery, but their account is subordinated to description of that machinery's product.

Another virtue of the book from the teacher's standpoint is the objective way in which it has been written. It is not propaganda or anything faintly resembling it. The authors obviously support the *League* idea, but they do so coolly and with detachment. Inadequacies and failures are pointed out with as much emphasis as successes. Indeed, we can imagine that the book might cause no little irritation to those readers who wish to have their faith confirmed rather than to be compelled to look to its foundations. They will derive little comfort from such sentences as this: 'The new system is, therefore, still in an experimental stage whose final end cannot yet be determined with any confidence.'

Lastly, teachers who read this book will be impressed by the stress laid upon the importance of education: with it, say the authors, 'the final word lies'. They have made the saying of it easier by their labours.

The book has an excellent bibliography and a full index.

George H. Green.

The Mind of a Child. *A Psychoanalytical Study.*
By Charles Baudouin. Translated by Eden and Cedar Paul. (Allen and Unwin Ltd., London. Price 10s.)

In this volume Charles Baudouin attempts to give a systematic account of the material concerning the intimate nature of the child's mind which has been brought to light by Psychoanalysis. His matter is divided into four parts—Complexes of the Object, under which he groups Cain or Fraternal Rivalry, Œdipus and Filial Affection, Destruction, Display and Mystery—Complexes of the Ego (Mutilation Diana, preference for the boy's rôle, and Birth)—Complexes of Attitude (weaning and retreat) and Part 4 Relations and Regulations, or a consideration of the inter-relation of these aspects of the mind among each other, adding 'typical motifs,' 'I am shut out,' and 'the victimised woman.'

It is characteristic of this book that in a book of 270 pages the Super Ego occupies page 245 to page 255, and that throughout the book references

are made to the author's work as psychoanalytic investigations although Charles Baudouin's name does not appear in the list of members of the Psychoanalytical Society.

It is significant also that in a bibliography of 57 authors containing amongst them Marie Bashkirtseff, William Healy, Janet and Maurras, neither Melanie Klein nor Melitta Schmideberg appear and M. N. Searl is mentioned only by one paper published in 1927.

With these reservations, the book is both clear and attractively written and contains valuable material. It is marred by a too plenteous use of quotations which detract from its sequence and produce a sense of weariness upon the reader, and by a grouping of its material, which in the minds of those already possessed by a certain amount of knowledge produces some confusion.

The standpoint of the author is given in the introduction. 'Psychoanalysis,' states Charles Baudouin has quite definitely become the concern of psychologists and pedagogues; only in occasional instances is it the affair of a medical practitioner! The very loose use of the term psychoanalysis throughout the book makes this attitude difficult of evaluation.

The book should certainly help teachers and enlightened parents to some better understanding of the instinctive life of their children.

The translation is in every way admirable.

M. F. Lowenfeld.

In Search of the Beginning. M. A. Payne.
(Allenson. 5s.)

Discovery is not the finding of something that is new, but removal of the mask from what is old, so that it may be seen anew. Such is the task of Miss Payne's book *In Search of the Beginning*, and we follow the musings and discussions of the introspective and observant Susan with no less interest because her conclusions are not new to us. The problem of mankind is fear, and how to turn it into Love? This is first and foremost an individual problem, and thus Miss Payne believes it must be solved before the world can learn its lesson. 'To comprehend the true meaning of Love, to understand the cause of the world's unhappiness, and to realize how it can be remedied and prevented, is the life-work at present of every man and woman. No system of government, no international reform, no scheme for the assurance of peace, and no form of institutional religion can of themselves change the abiding state of chaos. For the problem of the world is fundamentally nothing more and nothing less than the unsolved problem of discord and unhappiness, *within each individual.*'

The text is made easy to follow by being written in the form of question and discussion between Susan and her friends. The author's wide experience has brought her into close touch with much psychological disorder and unhappiness which is freely used as illustrative material. Stress is laid upon the importance of environmental influences both as cause and cure, and this is wise enough, though heredity is not so easily dealt with and is sometimes for that reason

too liable to be ignored. We follow Susan's discoveries in turn, the importance of the individual, the dominance of feeling over too boastful reason, the need to develop the whole of mind in harmony, the development of the protective and unreal mask behind which we hide until we are lost, growth from 'me' through 'I' to 'everybody', and the many ways in which well-intentioned measures on the part of parents and teachers may make or mar our lives. In all her general deductions and practical advice the author is both sound and simple, not least in advocating once more the co-operation of parents and teachers for the better understanding of the task they share.

In so small a book it is too much to expect completeness, and a certain unevenness is evidence of the author's preoccupation with other and more important matters than authorship. Quotations are made from other psychological works, but the absence of references to identify them suggests that the same author may perhaps have written them. There is a pleasant absence of technical jargon, but 'this picture, with all its painful feelings, was shot down into her hidden mind' reads more like thrills in an Old Curiosity Shop than serious psychology. The book is very readable by those for whom it is intended, and can only do good in the cause of better education, whether of children, parents or teachers.

E. Graham Howe.

The Proper Study of Mankind. *B. A. Howard, M.A. (Ginn 3s. 6d.).*

This book, as the author tells us in his preface, is the outcome of a course of lecture discussions held with the Sixth Form boys and girls in his school, and its object is 'first to give adolescent boys and girls some conception of man as an evolving being, and to indicate the way in which his body, his mind, his religion and his social organization have all developed through the ages. Secondly, against the background thus provided, to suggest the attitude of mind which gives most hope of solving the many problems which press hardly upon man to-day.'

There is little to say except to marvel at the success with which he achieves in a book of two hundred odd pages this apparently stupendous task. He starts with a chapter giving the main facts about the universe with which Eddington and Jeans have made the layman familiar during the last few years. He follows with chapters on the growth of man's body, his mind, his religion, his society, and concludes with two very valuable chapters on the working of the mind and shows the bearing of it on the reader's attitude in facing the many problems of to-day.

In spite of the enormous width of ground covered and the fact that the author makes no claim to be a specialist in most of the topics he discusses, there is nowhere any trace of a second-hand or tit-bit impression. He has thought deeply and clearly and sanely and independently. He writes convincingly yet without bias, freshly and wittily without falling to the temptation of cheap populariz-

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ing. He remarks in the preface, 'My medicine has perhaps this to recommend it, that it has been tried on the dog.' The reviewer immediately tried it on his own dog, who, having, after the manner of his kind, a nose for what is first-class, took to it at once. There is no doubt that he will swallow it to the last drop and there is no doubt about the good it will do him.

Paul Roberts.

Music and the Community. *The Cambridgeshire Report on the Teaching of Music. Cambridge. (At the University Press. Price 3s. 6d.)*

The Cambridgeshire Council of Musical Education was formed in 1924 with the object of fostering the practice and enjoyment of music in that county, and its Committee includes the names of such eminent musicians and educationists as would lead us to expect research work of considerable value. This expectation is amply fulfilled in the Report which is now issued under the above title. The book is planned in five main sections. Part I, 'The Value of Music to the Community and the Place that it should occupy in Education', consists of a brief but emphatic statement of the conviction that 'Music is the greatest of all spiritual forces' and consequently insists on its rightful inclusion in any educational scheme. Parts 2 and 3 are devoted to practical outlines of schemes of musical training adapted to the needs of varying types of schools and valuable suggestions on teaching methods

The concluding sections are devoted to 'Other Aspects of Music' and 'Conclusions and Retro-spect' and are followed by valuable appendices giving lists of music and other material which has proved useful in actual practice, and the whole forms a most useful contribution to existing literature on this subject. Though this book should undoubtedly be read by all those responsible for the teaching of music, on account of its very comprehensive survey of modern tendencies and its extraordinarily practical nature, it may be recommended with equal enthusiasm to all those who are interested in education as a whole, and the Council are to be congratulated on a most stimulating and thorough report.

M. A. Carnell.

Children, Young People and Unemployment.
(*The Save the Children International Union, Geneva. 2s.*).

This booklet is the first of a series of three dealing with the increasingly urgent problems of the adolescent unemployed. The countries considered in Part I are Germany, Belgium, the United States of America and Switzerland. Part II will include England, Austria and Poland.

This report clearly shows how serious and widespread have been the effects of the 'depression' on young people.

There are very large numbers of boys and girls existing all over the world on insufficient and inferior food, inadequate clothing and footwear.

The physical effects are bad enough but the moral and mental effects are more permanent and therefore more serious. Their outlook is warped, apathetic and pessimistic. Nobody appears to be doing anything to relieve their condition and they consequently often fall into vagrancy and crime, if it can be called a crime to steal food when starving.

The concerted efforts of all responsible public bodies and public enterprises are urgently needed to cope with this evil. The position in England is not quite so alarming as it is in most other countries but we have already 135,000 boys and girls on the unemployed register to-day and probably not less than 200,000 out of work.

This report is valuable in drawing attention to a state of affairs which *must* be remedied.

J. W. White.

Twenty Tales for Telling. Elizabeth Clark.
(*University of London Press. 3s. 6d.*)

This is a collection of stories which appeared from time to time during the last three years in the pages of *Child Education*.

Some are founded on folk-tale and legend and others, the author tells us, are 'tales from her own small years'.

These tales are well told and suitable for very young children as they are free from anything likely to create fear in the child's mind.

C. Raab.

Carrying the Mail. Avah W. Hughes (*Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College*).

Western Youth Meets Eastern Culture. Sweeney, Barry and Schoelkopf (*Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College*).

To the Englishman American educational methods are a subject of mistrust, while to the American English education is based on a traditional pattern which ignores the scientific study of childhood. American and English educationalists show equally wide differences in their writings. English books tend to be filled with platitudinous sentences containing no precise meaning while American writers play havoc with many-syllable scientific words which tend to obscure rather than clarify their writing.

These two books, published by Teachers' College, Columbia, form part of a series of curriculum studies based on the work of the Lincoln School. They thus describe the latest practical attempt of America's best-known Training College to approach the problems of curriculum reform. Both books replace the isolation of knowledge into compact subjects, on which the traditional curriculum is based, by what they term integrated studies. Certain subjects appear to have definite boundaries. The study of a foreign language is an obvious example, for the teacher who attempts to teach English and French at one and the same time will teach neither. Simple mathematics can also be treated as an entity, though neither of these statements precludes the application of much that is gained in the Arithmetic and French lessons from being of great use throughout the curriculum. English, history, geography and the study of human societies and human art are, on the other hand, inextricably bound together and these experiments are an attempt to teach such subjects by selecting a central theme from which the children can develop their experiences over an ever-widening and all embracing field. Difficulties were met at every turn. The administration of the school had to be organized so that specialist teachers could be readily consulted when their particular knowledge was required. A balance had to be struck between 'the indiscriminate following of children's leads and interests' and the imparting of factual information by a 'ground to be covered course'. Above all, opportunity had to be provided for practical work of every shape and form.

The conditions of both experiments resembled those of a good English private school with a liberal outlook rather than a state school, and it will probably be teachers in the former type of school who will benefit most from reading them. The numbers in the classes varied from 23 to 30. Staffing was relatively generous, the I.Q. of the children ranged from 96 to 159 and 'all of the parents were deeply interested in the physical, intellectual, social and emotional development of their children and were eager to co-operate with the school and the teachers'. Together the experiments cover a wide chronological age range, for *Carrying the Mail* tells the story of a band of seven-year-olds whose experiences centred round the postal services in their own city, while in *Western Youth meets Eastern Culture* the children's

average age is 12 and their theme is based on a study of China. Yet there is much in both volumes which should be of value to all who are interested in childhood.

Carrying the Mail is particularly full of wise educational lore. Of the two books it is the more clearly written and avoids the fault of laying too much stress on educational philosophy clothed in psychological terms. For the administrator it shows how large classrooms and small classes are essential to intelligent teaching and also how tragic it is that so many of our new schools have been built with rooms resembling sardine boxes rather than workrooms. For the teachers it points out how 'good teaching is not talking but waiting, to provide explanations and to ask questions when a situation needs to be clarified', how children of 7 with proper conditions can use libraries and tools such as saws and hammers with neither difficulty nor danger, how the value of school journeys is often enhanced by repetition, not perhaps to the same, but to a similar place, and how children's composition must be judged by a child's and not by an adult's standards. This latter point is often overlooked by teachers who set too great store on formal

expression. The following description of a visit to an aerodrome is clearly the inspired work of a seven-year-old:

Our Trip to the Airport.

Toot! Toot! Toot! Here we go from Lincoln School, Away, Whiz! We go into the great tunnel under the Hudson river. Look at the bright lights! There are purple lights! There are red lights, too! Do people walk through the tunnel? No, only policemen. Whizz-z-z-z. Swish. Here we come out of the Holland Tunnel!

Such work makes the old type of compositions with their formal wording and correct English appear dead and hollow.

There is much to be fought for by those who believe in education, but before the fight begins educationalists must be sure of their ground and of their ability to reap the rewards of progress. Such experiments as these lay the foundations for improved teaching method and provide an assurance that teachers, while seeking new paths, are keeping their balance and not sacrificing all that is best in the old learning.

A. L. Hutchinson.

Books Received

Our Neighbours To-day and Yesterday.

Harrison Brown, E. L. Woodward. Arnold J. Toynbee and S. K. Ratcliffe. (Howe. 6s.)

The popular Broadcast series in book form. The authors deal respectively with Germany, France, Russia and the United States.

Externals and Essentials. Sir John Adamson. (Longmans, Green & Co. 4s. 6d.)

The Framework of an Ordered Society. Sir Arthur Salter. (Cambridge University Press. 2s. 6d.)

The Music of Growth. Collum. With a foreword by Sir Arthur Keith. (Eric Partridge. 3s. 6d.)

War, Sadism and Pacifism. Edward Glover. (Allen & Unwin. 3s. 6d.)

The Broad Highway of Soviet Education. C. A. Harrison. (Society for Cultural Relations. 6d.)

Based upon notes of a tour embracing Leningrad, Moscow, Kharkov, Kiev.

An Introduction to Progressive Education. (The Activity Method.) Samuel Engle Burr. (C. A. Gregory Co. 50 cents.)

Observations on the Educational Problems of the South Wales Coalfields. (Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools. 7d.)

The Psychology of Power. J. A. Hadfield, M.A. (Macmillan. 1s.)

A new edition of the paper originally contributed to *The Spirit*.

The Girl through the Ages. Dorothy Margaret Stuart. (Harrap. 7s. 6d.)

A delightful and very well produced survey.

Report for 1932 of the Institute of Medical Psychology.

The Voice of the Children. No. 17, April, 1933.

A magazine written, printed and illustrated by the children of The Modern School, Stelton, N.J.

The Basis and Essentials of German. Charles Duff and Richard Freund. (Desmond Harmsworth. 3s. 6d.)

An excellent little book containing 'all that is necessary to meet most of the exigencies of everyday life . . . from the Alphabet to Einstein's prose'.

First French Course for Seniors. Harold F. Kynaston-Snell. (Gregg Publishing Co. 3s.)

Provides 'the practical minimum for ordinary conversation, for business purposes and for general comprehension'.

French Passages for School Certificate and Matriculation. Arranged by H. A. Treble. (University of London Press. 2s.)

Prose and verse passages set at various times by most of the chief examining boards in Great Britain.

La France: Esquisse de Géographie, d'Histoire et de Littérature. Frank A. Hedgcock. (University of London Press. 3s.)

For secondary school pupils who have passed the first School Certificate examination. Written in French which is sufficiently simple for them to be able to read easily.

Science for Junior Schools. W. B. Little. Book IV. (Pitman. 2s.)

An account of some of the common marvels of everyday life with a number of extremely interesting experiments and diagrams.

Science and the Weather. ('Science in Everyday Life' Series.) W. B. Little. (Pitman. 2s. 6d.)

Watchings. W. R. Calvert. (Putnam. 6s.)

A volume of nature studies of great charm and interest.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

We are very glad to throw open the editorial columns of THE NEW ERA to a number of eminent educationists who have kindly consented to contribute the leading articles during the coming months. Professor Katzaroff opens the series.

IT is frequently said that the World Crisis is not only economic, but more especially, political, social and spiritual. What does this imply?

The World Crisis It means that we cannot hope to understand the existing economic crisis or solve the problems arising from it if we persist as hitherto in considering economic phenomena apart from the other phenomena of social life. It is in fact impossible to escape from the present crisis merely by making economic adjustments. If we are to understand the crisis itself, we must consider it in relation to the political, social and spiritual aspects of society—which is itself the complex and living synthesis of all phases of life. It then becomes clear that the economic crisis is not purely the outcome of economic causes: rather it is due to the fact that existing political and social conditions are in conflict with economic conditions. Our political and social institutions are not adapted to the changes which the rapid spread of technical improvements has brought about in every sphere of industry.

But can our problems then be solved by change in our social and political institutions brought about by revolutionary violence? Any such hope is founded on our mistaken habit of regarding these institutions as though they were independent of man's attitude to, and view of, life. The blame for the crisis rests not with scientific progress and the consequent changes in the methods of production, but with ourselves, for we have misused this progress because of our mistaken conception of social

life. We should not therefore make the transformation of social and political institutions our sole aim; but this transformation should be the inevitable result of our efforts to teach a new conception of life and to develop a new attitude in harmony with it. Our own personal egoisms, our egoisms of party, of class and of nation, lead us to seek a solution of our troubles in every direction save the true one—the renunciation of the egocentric principle.

A New Conception of Life There are fundamentally only two conceptions of life: an egocentric and an altruistic one. Society to-day is founded on the former and this fact—not industrial or economic conditions—is responsible for the World Crisis. We cannot therefore hope to escape from our troubles until we have given up our present view of life and accepted the altruistic attitude, reorganizing our life according to its principles. Therefore, if we are to remake our social life, we must first help both young and old to remake their attitude to life. They must, in fact, exchange egoism for altruism, and learn to think, to will and to act in this new spirit both in their private and in their public lives. The central aim of education should be to bring about this change; everything else should be but the means to this end. And if educators determine to carry through this task with resolution and courage and succeed in their endeavour, then they will be able to change the face of the world in the space of a few generations.

Unfortunately the schools, like the church, have not had the courage to face the truth—

or, if they recognize it, to declare it aloud. Both busy themselves with everything but the purpose for which they exist. It is the church's purpose to proclaim the unity of life, the brotherhood of human beings, and the law of love which governs them; it is the purpose of the schools to seek, as the true aim of education, to perfect both the individual and society and to proclaim their interdependence.

The New Education

Even the new education, however, does not stress this idea sufficiently. It has been my privilege to see a very large number of new schools in many countries, both in Europe and America, and I must confess that, as far as the majority is concerned, my admiration was tinged with bitter disappointment. I could not feel that there was a sufficiently definite attempt made to develop individuals with a new point of view. The new spirit, which we need so greatly, did not manifest itself through the teachers and pupils; it did not illuminate the whole atmosphere of the schools. Neither teachers nor pupils appeared to realize sufficiently vividly the urgent need for a better way of life. The passionate conviction which endures all things and stops at nothing in pursuit of its ideal was somehow lacking.

Why should this be? Is it because even the new schools are primarily places in which knowledge is imparted rather than places in which the harmonious development of the whole child is the principal aim? Does the attention of the new education tend to be directed too much towards the introduction of new and improved methods of teaching? Perhaps it has not sufficiently realized that knowledge, gifts and ability, together with the teaching which develops them, are only means to an end; and this end is the development of a personality spiritually ready to adopt a new, altruistic attitude towards life.

The Technique of Teaching

The new technique of teaching only improves and facilitates the transmission of knowledge. It does not indicate what purpose this accumulated knowledge should serve. Yet unless it is directed towards some end, the acquisition of knowledge becomes a purpose in itself instead of a step towards the fundamental aim

of all education, the gradual development of the fine personality and the identification of the individual with society. The new education must not become merely a new technique of teaching, it must be permeated with a new conception of life. Its mission must be to plant this new attitude triumphantly in the minds of the younger generation.

Therefore mere teaching is not enough. The spirit cannot be taught; it must live in the atmosphere of the school, inspiring not only the curriculum and the methods of instruction, but also the whole school organization and its environment. Above all, the teacher must envisage his task as the creation of this new attitude to life in the child.

The new technique of teaching is only justified if, to quote Decroly, it contributes to the *Taylorization* of teaching, that is to say, if it is more economic and liberates time and energy which can be used to revitalize teaching and bring it into contact with life, thus contributing to the child's spiritual development.

In so far as the new methods and apparatus are inspired and directed by the new spirit and conform to it, they are valuable and necessary. But unless this new spirit is at work, the new education will continue to spread the old spirit of egoism through new methods; it will continue to seek its inspiration from life as it is, not from life as it should be. It will not direct life, but instead it will be at the mercy of events.

It is of course necessary to break away from the old methods and to adopt new ones, better fitted to encourage the new spirit. We must, for instance, remake the curriculum. But this is not enough. If we adopt new methods without concentrating all our efforts upon the realization of the new spirit, it is as if we were to turn on a tap and leave the water to flow as it pleased without trying to divert it into those channels which alone will irrigate the patch of land we wish to cultivate.

No special environment is necessary for the realization of this new spirit. It can be put into practice in every type of school and under any conditions, provided that those who educate are themselves inspired by it. This implies that the new education is impracticable without a new type of teacher, steeped in

the new spirit. Hence the very greatest care is necessary in the choice of teachers. Further, we cannot hope to implant this new spirit in the young unless we have the co-operation of their parents.

Who are the Educators? We adults, those of us who care about the future of our children, must free ourselves from the old spirit of egoism and strife, must let ourselves be guided in our daily life by the spirit of altruism and co-operation. Only thus shall we be able to make our contribution to the new education. Education is not only the concern of the schools; by themselves, the schools would be powerless. The task of education is one in which we must all take part, fully realizing our grave responsibilities.

The New Education in Practice If the new education is to succeed, it is in the first place essential that the relations between teacher and taught should be entirely changed. The essence of true education lies in a spiritual contact, and the child's spirit must be ready to make this contact with his teacher's. But the child does not open his heart to us until he feels that we sincerely respect and trust him.

Secondly, it is essential that the child should be in contact with real life. He must be helped to understand life's problems and difficulties; he must learn to deal with them by willingly dedicating his life to the welfare of society as a whole. We must help him to establish within himself a central conviction based on an altruistic and social conception of life, so that he can really feel his one-ness with other human beings, his dependence on them, and the impossibility of achieving personal happiness apart from the happiness of the community.

These conditions could be obtained if the school were organized as a community. By continually taking his part in activities directed towards the corporate good, the child could really live as a member of a community; he would learn to understand the thoughts, feelings and desires of others and come to share them. The school should be a model of life as we wish it to be lived, and the child should learn to live under the conditions which we wish to see realized in adult life.

How shall the strength of the new education be renewed? In the first place, we must realize that education is a decisive factor in the reconstruction of the life of both the individual and society; for the process of reconstruction is primarily a process of education. But education should never be used to strengthen any social or political institution of the past, present, or the future: it must be at the service of the whole growing and evolving community.

Education must grasp the general direction in which life itself is flowing; it must help both young and old to understand the problems which life presents. But above all, education must seek the spiritual regeneration of man, it must endeavour to replace egoism by altruism, egocentricity by world-mindedness.

If the new education is to succeed in its task, there must be, first, a new attitude of trust and respect towards children. Secondly, youth must be helped to discover a conception of life founded on altruism, and must truly believe that it is impossible to live without unity and co-operation among men. It is not necessary to inculcate in the child the principles of any particular doctrine; it is sufficient to give him the right attitude towards life, so that later on he may himself discover the best way of realizing his own conception of life. Thirdly, we ourselves must see man, society and life as a whole: so that we may view education and the child as a whole. Fourthly, we must believe sincerely in the power of education to change the face of the world in a short space of time, if we are ourselves inspired by the new conception of life. Finally, we must reform ourselves. We are only too often new educators only in name. With but few exceptions we are still fettered by all kinds of personal, national and racial prejudices, which prove that we have not yet freed ourselves from our egocentric attitude to life.

These prejudices make us incapable of taking an objective view of men and of circumstances, incapable of acting courageously, incapable of spreading the new education. Yet the New Education is in vital need of new educators sincerely pledged to the new spirit, able to live by its light, with a new conception of life and of mankind.

The Austrian Federal Boarding Schools

VICTOR BELOHOUBEK

IT may at first seem strange that an account of the Austrian Federal Boarding Schools should appear in an English periodical, for England is so essentially the home of the Public Schools. But those who know the new Austrian type of school will find that there is some justification for thinking that the British public should be told of this work of reconstruction in Austria. And indeed many foreign visitors, particularly those from England, have praised these schools most highly.

What the World Thinks

Some ten years ago the school inspector of Manchester, John Campton, in a letter addressed to the director of these schools at the Ministry of Education in Vienna, wrote of one of the Federal Boarding Schools which he had visited: 'What I saw in your school and my talks with the teachers and tutors, have made a deep impression on me'. About the same time Mr. John Nicholson, who was then lecturer in education at the University of Bristol, wrote: 'The thoroughness and the spirit of enterprise I witnessed in the Federal Boarding Schools of Austria have made a great impression on me, and in particular the important work done by encouraging natural artistic gifts in the pupils. In spite of my vast experience regarding such institutions, I have never yet seen a school in which this work was carried out with greater initiative and success'. The head of the Chinese Commission of Studies who travelled in Europe for several months, Mr. Chi Pao-Cheng, Director of the College of Education in Nanking, when taking official leave of Austria, said: 'The most marvellous experience which we had during our whole European trip was that of visiting the Austrian Federal Boarding Schools'. All these opinions show that the Austrian Federal Boarding Schools impress foreigners as a unique and noteworthy innovation.

From the point of view of educational theory, the Federal Boarding Schools certainly offer a vast and interesting field of obser-

vation to the expert. The Central Bureau for the management of these schools in the Ministry of Education has, in fact, been obliged to print and publish small explanatory pamphlets in English (and also in French) through the Federal Publishing House in order to deal with the great number of enquiries sent in, chiefly from Anglo-Saxon countries, regarding the Federal Boarding Schools.*

The great interest shown by English experts and American educationists is further shown by the fact that Miss Beryl Parker of the Teachers' College of Columbia University, New York, made the Austrian Federal Boarding Schools the subject of her thesis when taking her doctor's degree. This book appeared under the title *The Austrian Educational Institutes*, at the Federal Publishing House of Austria in Vienna, in English, profusely illustrated, and is about to appear in the Turkish language at Ankara, where Miss Parker is acting as educational adviser to the Turkish Government.

It is not surprising that the Anglo-Saxon nations should show particular interest in these establishments. For the principles of education on which the Federal Boarding Schools are based are in general those of the German 'Landerziehungsheime' or country schools, whose founder, Herman Lietz, was in his turn greatly influenced by the English school, Abbotsholme. Some of the schools, as, for instance, that of Wiener Neustadt in Lower Austria, called the 'Tower School', with its historic buildings and its glorious century-old park, remind us of the famous public schools of England.

But, though the Austrian Federal Boarding Schools may have taken over some of the proven qualities of similar English institutions, they are nevertheless an Austrian creation *sui generis*.

The Revolution in Education

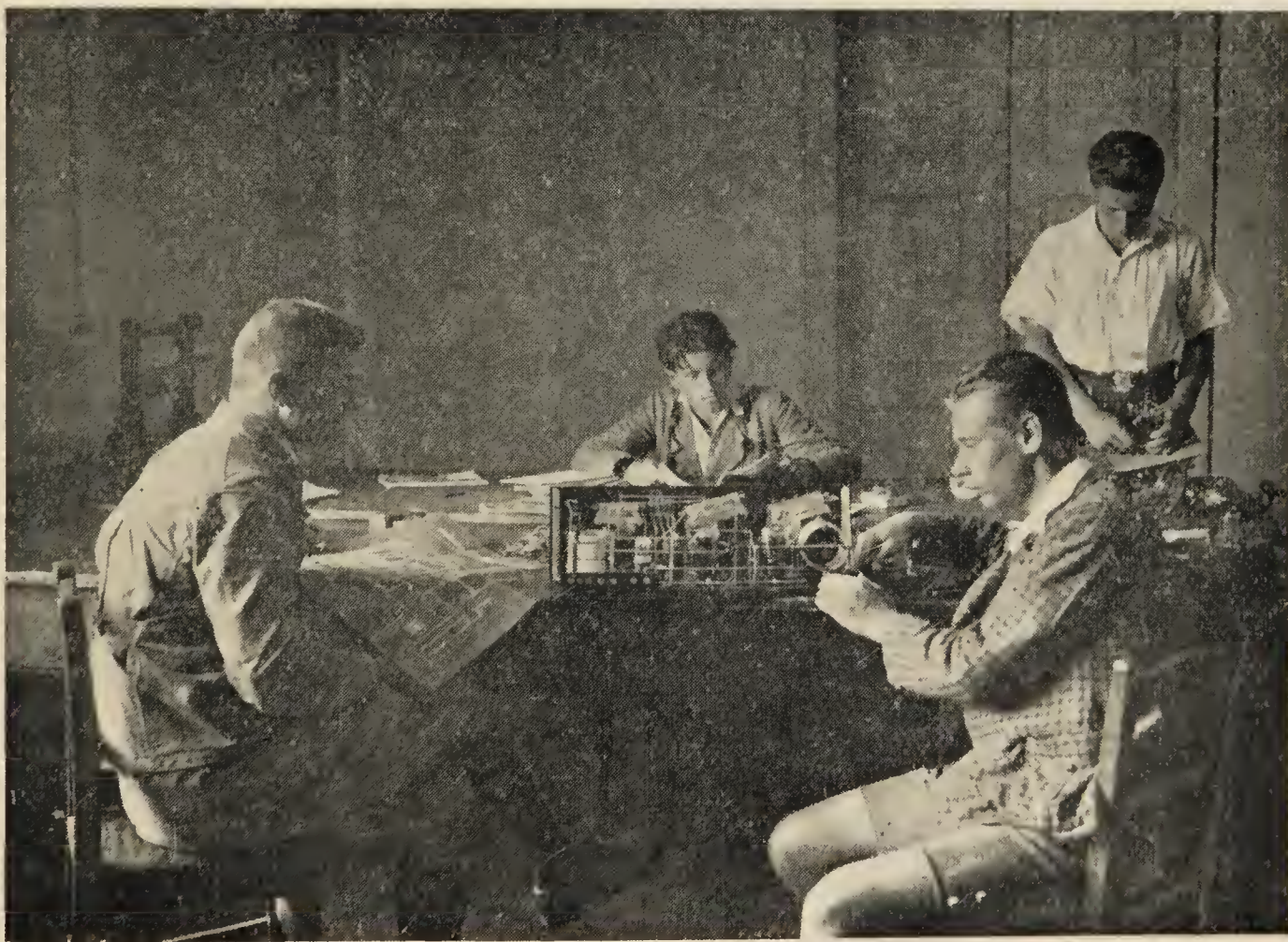
Austria was the first state which attempted after the War to apply, in large public schools,

* The Federal Boarding Schools of Austria (Les Internats Federaux D'Autriche).

modern principles of education which aim at the development not only of the intellectual but also of the emotional and physical qualities. This was a leap in the dark, for these principles had hitherto only been applied in England and later in Germany under quite different and far easier conditions and with pupils belonging to quite another section of society. The step was all the more dangerous because the Austrian Federal Boarding Schools started their activities at the time of the greatest distress in Austria, immediately after the War and more or less on the ruins of the former military training schools. It will always be to the highest credit of Austrian educationists and of Austrian administrators that this great experiment brought about such excellent results.

The social aim of the Federal Boarding Schools is unique. Their purpose is to help those children who, in spite of natural gifts, cannot obtain an adequate education because of their circumstances. Therefore the pupils who have first claim to education in these schools are orphans, pupils in whose neighbourhood there are no suitable secondary

schools, pupils who are prevented by social, economic or family circumstances from having the necessary training, and, finally, the children of Austrian citizens living abroad. The law relative to the Federal Boarding Schools decrees that, in as far as the father or guardian cannot defray the expenses for the pupil's education and board, the state shall do so. The parents therefore need only pay as much as they can afford. This has been organized so that the full fees, which moreover only amount to 960 Austrian schillings per school year, *i.e.* about £32 sterling, need only be paid by those parents whose incomes exceed a certain sum. At present this limit is 7,300 Austrian schillings per annum, *i.e.* about £243 sterling. These fees are subdivided into tenths so that certain limits of income correspond to certain grades of payment, and payments of school fees vary according to the incomes of the fathers or guardians. Thus if a pupil who was admitted to the school while his parents enjoyed a certain income were to lose his father, the fees would be automatically reduced according to the diminished income



Making a Wireless Set

of the mother. The same thing occurs when the father or guardian has his income reduced or loses his employment. One can say in general that hardly any other state provides so efficiently for the education of talented children in straitened circumstances.

Building up Character

Another special feature of these schools is their inner organization. The management of the school consists of the Director (headmaster or headmistress) who conducts the whole establishment, his deputy, who as a rule is at the head of the school itself, and the head Educator or Tutor, who is responsible for the moral education of the pupils. In the Federal Boarding Schools the whole establishment,

including the 'homes,' which are usually smaller than the Houses at an English School, is an indivisible unit. There is therefore only one staff of teachers and tutors (or educators). The tutors undertake a certain amount of teaching and they have the same academic qualifications as their colleagues who only teach. But they are primarily concerned with character training: they live with the pupils as a father or an elder brother; they assist them in every way and are responsible for training both intellect and character and for their physical well being. The homes in the Federal Boarding schools are organized as far as possible on family lines, and every home has a matron or 'House Mother' who brings the feminine influence into the life of the school and cares for both the smaller and the bigger boys.

Physical Fitness—and Manual Labour

In addition to the actual academic tuition, much importance is attached in these schools to the educational value of physical exercises, manual work, music and amateur acting. The principle of 'activity and collaboration', by which the creative forces of the young are encouraged, is stressed in the teaching of all subjects. It is well known that since the war Austria has been in the vanguard as far as physical training is concerned, and the Federal Boarding Schools were the first Austrian Secondary Schools in which the new methods of physical education were intensively applied, for they possessed the necessary equipment and space which had gradually to be provided for other schools. It is impossible, of course, owing to lack of space, even to outline the pioneer work done by the Federal Schools in this domain. But there is one point which should be stressed: in general, the unsatisfactory principle of striving for the highest performance in games and competitions still prevails in schools, but the new Austrian method of physical training aims at awakening in the individual pupil, by dint of suitable exercises, an appreciation of the value of



Binding Library Books

hygiene and a conviction that physical training is not only the individual's duty to himself but also to the community. Thus the physical training has a social and national end. It is quite clear that in working towards this end a thorough and general training of all the pupils, the achievement of the best possible *average* performance, is of the utmost importance. Therefore the so-called 'performance exams.' were instituted in the Federal Boarding Schools of Austria, and these are arranged so that not the peak performances of the individual but the general performance of a whole group is the deciding factor in success.*

In these new schools the importance of manual labour in the education and training of youth has been made abundantly clear. It is impossible to explain fully even the basic features of this branch of education in so brief an article, but manual work and handicrafts are practised as a means of education in all grades and with all technical accessories and the most varied materials. The work accomplished is often astonishing and bears witness to the manifold talents of the Austrian people. This kind of work always elicits the greatest admiration from foreign visitors, and again and again one hears them say that only in Austria can such performances be attained. Convincing proof of the high standard of this work was gained when in 1930 the 'Prix de grand honneur' was awarded to the Federal Boarding Schools of Austria at the Exhibition 'Salon de l'Enfant' at Brussels.

Arts and Crafts

In order just to give an idea of the variety of the work, some of the handicrafts may be mentioned. For small children, the true art of childhood, as taught in the children's classes of Professor Cizek of the Vienna Arts and Crafts School so well known in Anglo-Saxon countries, is encouraged. But in the Federal Boarding schools this subject is not restricted to specially talented children; in fact a high level of artistic expression is reached with nearly

* This probably constitutes a certain difference compared to physical training in English schools. See also the article by Langer, 'The Performance Tests in the Austrian Federal Boarding Schools,' to be published in the next issue.



Painting a Frieze in a School Home

all the children, who learn without being aware of it. In the various technical crafts suitable for children of this age, such as pasting, cutting out coloured paper or black and white effects, modelling, cardboard prints, linoleum cuts and wood cuts, and even etching, an extraordinarily high standard is achieved by boys before the age of puberty. A second group comprises true handicrafts, in which metal work and chasing, ivory carving, glass staining and other crafts are studied. It is a definite principle that all this work must serve some useful practical purpose. As a matter of fact the 'homes' are often decorated by the pupils' own hands: they not only paint the walls in a bright and humorous style quite their own, but also the furniture, and they make scenery for their theatricals. Thus theatricals which form so important a feature in a 'home' are

entirely based on the boys' own efforts. It is interesting to note that in the girls' schools all this sort of creative activity is not so advanced. Manual work for boys is also intended to teach them trades. This is particularly helpful in the case of boys who have no great artistic talents or others whose artistic vein has run dry, which often occurs after puberty. The work of the various trades is of course placed at the practical service of the school. The boys work in well-equipped workshops. Carpentry, the locksmith trade, electrical engineering and other mechanics, are taught, while basket-making, wicker-work, weaving and carpet-making also form part of the programme. Finally rough manual labour for boys also plays an important part. This work not only serves a practical purpose—

for many things connected with these schools can only be accomplished thanks to the active collaboration of the pupils—but it also has a social and ethical end. If the children are taught to do their share of rough work in the house, farm, garden and in the fields, they will later, as leaders of the people—which is their destiny—be able to appreciate manual labour and to judge its merits, thus bridging that fatal and dangerous gulf between the various classes of the population.

These few words do not of course suffice to describe the many and varied activities, the abounding vitality of the Austrian Federal Boarding Schools and the bright actualities of the pupils' life. Those who wish to gain real insight into this new creation of Austria should come and see for themselves.



A Performance at one of the Girls' Federal Schools

The illustrations to this article are reproduced by courtesy of the Austrian Ministry of Education

The Bryanston 'Pioneers'

T. F. COADE

THE ethical value of the Officers' Training Corps in Public Schools is too vast and thorny a problem to deal with in a short compass. There is much to be said on both sides. This article is merely intended to give a simple account of the aims and achievements up-to-date of an organization founded last May at Bryanston School, and calling itself *The Pioneers*.

But as the existence of such a body, however recent and humble its origin, does challenge comparison with a purely military institution, it may not be out of place to stress one consideration that is not always given full weight by those who uphold the O.T.C.; it is a consideration that must be of increasing importance in proportion as the world is forced into some form of co-operation. Children, and notably adolescent boys from 13 to 17, are all the time unconsciously evolving a philosophy of life, which will determine their actions and reactions as adult citizens. The foundations of this philosophy, which are laid in youth, are largely determined in quality by external influences and motives of which the boy is not fully aware until it is perhaps too late for him to avoid their effect. Where it is morally, if not actually obligatory to become a member of an O.T.C., a habit of thought is engendered that regards war, however undesirable, as the ultimate and natural way of settling international disputes. Every sane person recognizes that another world war is likely to prove the ruin of civilization. Therefore it is dangerous to encourage the young lightly to handle lethal weapons and think in terms of slaughter before they reach 'years of discretion'—a period that certainly does not dawn before the age of seventeen.

The fact that many boys dislike the O.T.C. does not alter the fact that warlike operations are a weekly part of their school life; and practices that become habitual may come to be regarded as necessary.

Corporate Activity

In a modern school, there is rightly a

tendency to pay much attention to the individuality of the boy. The attendant danger of this wholly good practice is that the sense of corporate unity is weakened. There is a real value, too, in a school seeing itself parading or marching together as a unit. It was therefore felt that some substitute for an O.T.C. should be evolved at Bryanston, preserving all that is useful in that organization, omitting its warlike features, and incorporating those ideals and departments of the Scouts' training which are most likely to appeal to the public school boy. In addition, certain social and holiday activities were made part of the general programme, of which something will be said later.

Scouting, which is so admirable for boys of preparatory school age, does not as a rule appeal to public school boys. After the age of about 14, boys are apt to be shy of certain essential features of Scouting, e.g. the oath, the flags, the uniform, and some scout games. That is why the 'house'—a larger unit than the patrol—more successfully captures their loyalty and imagination. It is not till they are through the adolescent period that some of them revert to Scouting and volunteer for training as Scoutmasters. This is part of the Pioneer's training; and boys who are already Scouts may continue to do their Scout training in place of the weekly period of Pioneers' community work.

The Pioneers

A survey of the organization and activities of the Pioneers will help the reader to understand their aims.

Membership is voluntary. Ninety-eight per cent of the school (at present about 200 boys) joined when the unit was formed; and there seems little likelihood of a falling-off in September. It is under the direction of a master, assisted in various departments of the training by two or three other masters and the Physical Training Instructor. The uniform consists of a grey shirt (open-necked), grey shorts, grey stockings, black shoes, and (in winter) a grey pullover. There is a weekly parade, when



Parade of the Pioneers

marching and simple drill movements are carried out, the object being to teach rhythmic movement, and healthy upright carriage. The boys 'fall in' in house groups and are inspected by house leaders before marching off.

In addition to this weekly parade each boy turns out on one afternoon a week and works, in a gang and under a house leader, on some useful job on the school estate—building, draining, haymaking, painting, wood-cutting and clearing, etc. This is a practical form of organized community service; and the older boys in charge gain not only in powers of leadership and control, but also in the simple technical knowledge necessary for the direction of such work.

An extract from the August issue of the school magazine, giving a report of what was done in May, June and July, will give a fair specimen of the work and activities generally. It must be remembered by the over-critical that a newly-formed body must necessarily be content with an unambitious programme at first.

"There are four aspects of the Pioneers to consider: community work for the school, the weekly parade, holiday activities, and the instructional courses.

Community Work for the School

"Briefly the organization was as follows: Seventeen groups with about ten boys to a group worked in the afternoons, each doing one period of one hour and a half each week. The Scouts formed an eighteenth group working independently at ordinary scouting activities. The groups had to be arranged so as to fit in with the games of the school: thus cricketers were arranged in five groups and rowers in five groups. Much work has been done, partly constructional and partly maintenance, partly requiring skilled and partly unskilled labour.

"The main achievements of the term are—a trench, 200 yards long for the purpose of draining part of the playing fields and providing a dry path to the boathouse; a

gravel path round the gymnasium; the painting of the tennis pavilion, the cricket pavilion, and the gates at the entrance to the school; the first stages in the levelling of ground for a practice hard tennis court; improvements to the river path to Blandford which, it is hoped, will be finished next term when clinker becomes more plentiful; work on the school farm; a flight of steps on to the plateau; and finally much clearance work in the form of removing nettles, hoeing weeds along drives and paths, and removing reeds from the river.

The Weekly Parade

"Once a week for half an hour, the Pioneers parade as a body when, after a short inspection, they drill and march. There is nothing warlike about these parades, but they are intended to give a sense of unity to the organization which its diverse and scattered activities must tend to hide. The drill and marching are military to the extent that they give

practice in physical self-control, a quality of great importance, not only to the soldier in action, but also every member of any community. Only if the self-control so developed is applied to all the social activities of the school will the drill and marching be of any value.

Instructional Courses

"Two courses have been taken this term. Thirty-two boys passed the Camping Course which entitles them to certain camping privileges during the term. Sixteen have availed themselves of these privileges. The courses of the Royal Life Saving Society have been taken for a number of years now, and fifty-one Pioneers hold the Bronze Medallion, two the Silver Medallion, and six the Instructor's Certificate. The figures for this term are not yet available, but about thirty are involved in the three courses.

The Certificate of Merit gathers these various activities and courses together, and



The Pioneers in the Welsh Coalfields

a certificate is awarded to every Pioneer who obtains a certain minimum number of entries. Eleven were presented at the School Speech Day by Her Royal Highness, Princess Arthur of Connaught.

Holiday Activities

"Last January five boys stayed for four or five days at Paddy's Goose, the headquarters of the Highway Clubs, and this August about a dozen are camping with the Highway boys in the school grounds. At Easter six boys spent a week at a mining village in South Wales doing community work with unemployed miners. Another party is repeating the visit these holidays. Two have been selected to attend the Duke of York's Camp, this being the first time that an invitation has been extended to the School."

The summer holidays afford a varied scope for enterprise. Here are a few typical expeditions. Thirteen boys and two masters worked in the South Wales village in August; one boy worked in an allotment scheme for the unemployed in Lancashire; about a dozen boys and several masters camped with the Highway

Clubs at Bryanston; two boys went to Iceland on a trawler; one went on a trawler voyage off the East Coast; two boys went to an island off the Welsh Coast to investigate the habits of a unique breed of mouse; parties have also explored the Mendip Caves, being underground for as much as twelve hours; two boys travelled by river in a canoe from Bryanston to London.

There is little to add to this statement. It may well be said that there is nothing new in what has been done. The only new feature is the incorporation of all these activities under one head, and the recognition of them as a regular and organized part of the school life. Adventure and social service lose none of their glamour by being related to a corporate movement. And the longer a boy spends as an active co-operating member of a body of this kind, the more, it is hoped, will he become habitually adventurous and public-spirited.

Finally, for the benefit of the pessimist, I would add that a boy trained thus is likely in a national emergency to be quite as loyal, as imaginative and as intelligent a servant of his country as an O.T.C. cadet, and perhaps more likely to be prepared to understand and co-operate in the interest of mankind in general.

An Experiment in the Teaching of Chemistry

N. F. NEWBURY

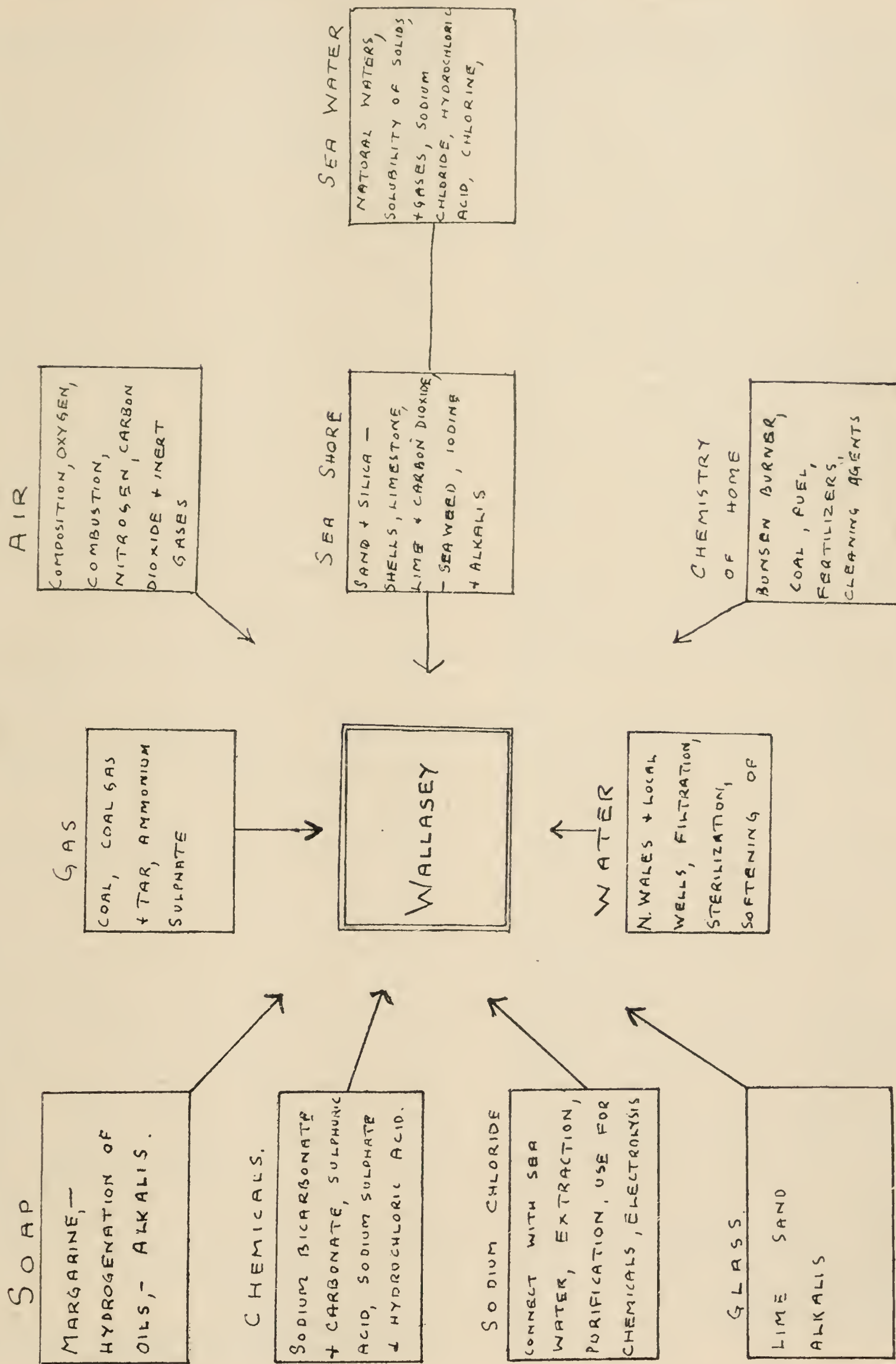
A GREAT thrill is undoubtedly experienced by many junior pupils when the word Chemistry is mentioned. Thousands of these boys make Chemistry their hobby, and under very varied conditions, attempt to emulate the successes of their amateur predecessors, Priestley and Cavendish. They gradually build up their own stock of apparatus, improvise with waste material, use the supplies of the cheap stores and raid the kitchen and larder. Their skill in woodwork and metal work and their inventive powers may enable them to turn out apparatus unusual in appearance but serviceable enough for their purposes. Occasionally, one finds an exceptionally well designed apparatus or an outstanding success such as a balance erected from the scrap metal of an old car.

From this it is clear that before chemistry is introduced into the pupils' curriculum, a latent

interest is often present. This interest has to be developed, stimulated and to some extent diverted towards the more academic type of work needed for examination purposes; for it is understood that the School and Higher Certificate courses must be adequately covered. As the course proceeds, the normal school work is supplemented by these enthusiastic pupils. Chemistry masters are bombarded with questions about the problems encountered in the pupil's hobby, and reference books are obtained as prizes or presents, while many opportunities occur after school or on open days for extra laboratory experience. But it is also necessary to arouse interest in the usual school work in various ways.

Using Local Material

In the first place it is advisable that the environment of the School should be fully



Local Chemistry

utilized. Although Wallasey is a residential town and has few industries and little geology which can be used as a basis of a school course, its position on the sea coast and its proximity to the Cheshire salt beds provide wonderful illustrative material. Samples of sea shore sand, shells, weeds and water serve as subject matter for numerous lessons. Thus Wallasey sea-water is used for experiments on solubility, natural waters and the softening of water. Later, instead of the usual 'Preparation and properties of Hydrochloric Acid,' this sea-water is evaporated to dryness and the weight of the solid in one hundred c.cs. is found. Then the residue is used for the preparation of hydrochloric acid and then chlorine. The concentrated salt solution is also electrolysed to provide chlorine and thus connection is made with the methods of the great alkali industries at Runcorn and Widnes which are a few miles from the school.

Sea shells are the starting-point for the study of calcium carbonate as there is no limestone or marble in the district. Carbon dioxide is prepared from the shells and seaweed is used for an introduction to lessons on alkalis. Visits have been made to soap, sugar, match, candle and jam factories as well as the municipal gas and water-works, so direct contact has been made with the application of chemistry to industry. During the visit round the sugar factory, an old boy employed there gave a lecture describing the growth of sugar cane and the various stages of its manufacture. This, of course, made the visit very much more valuable.

There are also local supplies of sandstone and clay, air, water and coal gas which provide a familiar background before introducing the wider application. Seafaring friends provide additional specimens such as corals, vegetable oils, ores of gold, silver, lead and iron, and sugar cane. Suitable opportunities should also occur in all forms for lecture-demonstrations to be given to the rest of the form. The subjects are best selected by the boys and include local and special interests such as crystals, microphotographs, electrical apparatus and experiments, fertilizers, nickel ore uses and chemical gardens. Similar subjects of a still wider application are dealt with in the Scientific Society.

A Chemical Exhibition

Finally, exceptional facilities for outstanding talent are provided by a Chemical Exhibition. Such an exhibition was recently given at an Open Evening held for friends and parents. As approximately 1000 people walked round the new School Hall and the new Laboratories in the two hours available, the boys felt rewarded for all their labours. In deciding how to 'stage' the exhibition it was necessary to realize that dangerous experiments must be omitted and that continuous experiments would be most advisable. Suggestions were made by the boys and where possible the originator carried out the experiment. Whilst some of the subjects treated were individual, others were most suitable for treatment as projects. Thus, before deciding on the type of experiment, groups of demonstrations were arranged around projects such as coal, Wallasey's water supply, paints and flavouring essences. Then the embryo specialists began their preparatory work by collecting the information in a convenient form from their previous school work, and from the School and Public Libraries and magazines. These details were necessary as it was understood that they were to act as guides to the visitors. In some cases it was decided to enlist the aid of firms who supply illustrative material such as specimen cases, catalogues and working models. The skill of fellow pupils in metal-work, wood-work and drawing was also utilized. After sorting out the useful material, the experiments which were considered to be the most convenient for an effective demonstration were tried out. Some gave no trouble. They were spectacular, easy to see, emphasized the point concerned, could be repeated several times during the evening or were continuous. Others were definitely unsuitable at first and improvements and changes had to be made before the experimenter felt confident of being able to satisfy his critical brother or sister. After several impromptu meetings where certain problems were settled, two senior pupils were selected as supervisors and the forty boys arranged their demonstrations to the best advantage on the benches.

The Demonstrations

A home-made turbine, built in a biscuit tin,

with metal vanes driven by tap water, provided power for a coal conveyer and a coal crusher. These showed the early stages in the extraction of coal. The powdered coal was then heated and it was shown that the ammonium sulphate, coal tar and coal gas could be collected by methods similar to those used in industry. Whilst senior boys showed how the coal tar dyes could be made from aniline, others demonstrated the dyeing of clothes and another pair passed coal gas through a soap solution. To illustrate the lightness and inflammability of these bubbles they were lighted in mid air. The Imperial Chemical Industries presented us with the raw materials obtained from coal tar and the application of these coal tar dyes was shown by coloured silks and perfumed and coloured sweets and bath salts. The project was completed by painted cardboard models of a typical gas plant and distiller, suitably labelled.

Another series was centred round water. Methods of purifying water were shown by filtration through sand, distillation and sterilization. The importance of softening water was shown by running soap solution into medicine bottles containing the same volume of distilled water, sea water and tap water. The distilled water gave a lather very easily whilst the sea water formed thick curds and only gave a lather with the addition of much solution. The tap water gave intermediate results. The Permutite Company kindly lent us a Water Softening Plant and it was shown by the use of standard soap solution how the School water could be softened. An improvised piece of apparatus showed the electrolysis of water and a model cardboard still in vivid colours, a working Liebig's Condenser and a large card giving details of the local water supply, gave further information.

Another large section was based on Fruit Essences. This was of necessity definite research work. It was shown how Alcohol could be manufactured, and the preparation of Amyl Acetate (pear flavour) and Ethyl Butyrate (pineapple flavour) were in progress. These were then purified and dissolved ready for flavouring sweets, jellies and confectionery. Samples of naturally occurring oils were lent by a parent and these were exhibited with certain synthetic flavours such as Vanilla

and Oil of Almond. Rows of test tubes were filled with these flavours; they were coloured with beautiful edible coal tar dyes, and as visitors were allowed to smell them they proved to be a very popular part of the exhibition.

A further section dealt with paints. Inorganic precipitates were first shown. These were then filtered, dried in an air oven, ground with glycerine and gum, and finally used as water colours. Other paints for special purposes such as Anti-rust and Anti-fouling were also prepared. The whole range of the spectrum was covered and samples of the different colours were placed in rainbow formation in a long glass tube. Finally the paints were shown in actual use. A poster depicting a chemical factory was displayed and during the evening a design was painted by one of the boys.

Another notable contribution was supplied by micro-chemical experiments. Minute apparatus and drops of solution were shown to be effective for testing purposes and many standard experiments were supplanted by this much more convenient method. Tests for the common metals were performed and all the tests were summarized on a large coloured chart. Micro-chemical photographs provided permanent records of unusual results.

Other exhibits can only be mentioned. They included a model of an acetic acid plant, a chemical water garden, the purification of mercury, a nickel exhibit and nickel plating, cardboard and wooden models of chemical plants, diagrams of apparatus, chemical conjuring, coloured flames and a large model of a bunsen burner.

Finally, the correlation with handicraft is important. A boy who is weak in academic subjects may be above the average in constructive work. His interest is aroused and his energies are directed towards the theoretical side when he is allowed to build up his own models for the use of the class. On the other hand, the often neglected brilliant pupil is able to show his proficiency in such an open evening; interested friends and parents are given an opportunity to see how school chemistry can be connected with commerce and the teachers are able to come in direct contact with these parents.

International Notes

FELLOWSHIP NEWS

Lectures

Re-creating the Technique of Teaching is the title of a course of lectures to be given at 29, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1, on Fridays, at 6.45 p.m., commencing 13th October.

A Morning at the Marlborough Infants' School
(13th October)

Violet M. Johnson (Marlborough Infants' School).

The Sentence Method of Teaching Reading
(20th October)

Mabel G. Barnes (Granton Road Infants' School).

Individual Work from 5 to 11+ (27th October)

Elizabeth Weighell (West Hill Council Junior Girls' and Infants' School).

The Dalton Plan in a Senior School
(3rd November)

Annette Hefford (Wornington Road Senior Girls' School).

A Scheme of Work for Biology in a Senior Girls' School
(10th November)

Marjorie Knott (Cambell Senior Girls' School, Barking).

The Place of Biology in Education (17th November)
A. K. C. Ottaway (Abbotsholme School).

The Dalton Plan and Modern Language Teaching
(24th November)

M. G. Francis (Parliament Hill School, N.W.3).

Modern Language Teaching in 'B' Forms
(1st December)

A. B. Clegg (St. Clement Danes Grammar School).

Full Course, 7s. 6d. Ticket admitting to ANY TWO lectures, 2s. 6d. Single lecture, 1s. 6d. Coffee will be served after the lectures. Write for full descriptive leaflet from the N.E.F.

World Fellow Teas

These Teas will be held on 6th October, at 5 p.m., and succeeding Fridays at 29, Tavistock Square, W.C.1. Among the speakers in October will be Miss Marjorie Gullan (Co-Director, the Speech Institute), Mr. G. D. Shahla (Syria), Mr. John T. Tansley (Middle Row L.C.C. Boys' School), Mrs. Robert Mayer. Among the hostesses: Mrs. R. Raab, Mrs. C. J. Baer, Miss Styer, Mrs. A. J. Lynch, Mrs. C. Kennington. Anyone interested is welcome at these teas which are arranged in order to provide an opportunity for members, their friends and inquirers to meet each other.

Scandinavian Regional Conference of the N.E.F.

It was agreed at the Nice Conference that a number of regional conferences of the N.E.F. should be held during 1933 and 1934 in preparation for the next World Conference. The first of these conferences was held in Lillehammer, Norway, between 3rd

and 8th August last, and brought together the Danish, Finnish, Norwegian and Swedish Sections of the Fellowship. The Conference, which was attended by between 130 and 140 delegates, was a great success, the liberal provision of time for discussion proving an excellent innovation. The programme centred round questions of curriculum, psychology and examinations, while teacher training, biology, sex teaching and experimental methods also came in for much discussion. A talk given by Rektor Zilliacus concerning the new education and propaganda in the school led to a general demand for a resolution to embody the feeling of the meeting. A small committee spent many hours over the matter and two public meetings were held before the following resolution was finally accepted with only three dissenting voices:—

'We believe that the new generations should be brought up to take a living part in the community and world to which they belong, and we, therefore, wish that they should be given in the school as full and objective an understanding of these as is possible and be roused to an active realization of their social responsibilities. In consequence we desire to see built up in our schools a curriculum which will serve this purpose.

'We are, however, utterly opposed to any attempt to use the school in order to make propaganda among children or force on them any particular body of opinions. We seek instead to develop independence of thought and action.

'We wish the schools to aid in the growth of international understanding since we are more than ever convinced of the necessity for the peoples of the world to base their relationships on mutual tolerance and respect'.

The N.E.F. in South Africa

The Western Province Group of the N.E.F. in Cape Province has inaugurated six new sections as a result of a very successful meeting held in February at which Mrs. Ensor and Dr. Te Water were present.

The Arts and Crafts Section is collecting drawings done by children in famous art schools, and is arranging demonstrations on the teaching of art. Various lectures will be given and an experimental class is to be started.

The Music Section is to hold demonstrations on the newest methods of teaching music.

The Dramatic Section aims at convincing parents that this work should be considered seriously and not merely regarded as an educational 'frill'.

The Parent Section is to establish Child Study Circles in various suburbs.

The Mental Hygiene Section is to work for the establishment of a Child Guidance Clinic in Cape Town.

The Pre-School Child Section is to work for the establishment of nursery schools for both the poor and the affluent in the Cape Peninsula.

WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

The World Federation of Educational Associations held an extremely successful Conference in Dublin from 29th July to 4th August. Eighteen hundred people attended, but the majority of the delegates came from Europe and the United States. No representatives came from Germany, while the Far East was represented only by one Japanese student.

One of the most successful sections of the Conference was organized by the International Federation of Home and School, and most valuable work was done by Miss M. A. Payne, of the Home and School Council.

Pre-School Section

The meetings of the Pre-School Section were particularly interesting. The two sessions were presided over by Dr. Louisa Wagoner, Mills College, California, and Mrs. Eileen MacCovell, Assistant Professor of English, University College, Dublin. The many valuable papers included contributions from Mrs. Dennis Kennedy, Dublin; Miss Alida Shinn, Mills College, California, now Chairman of the Pre-School Section of the W.F.E.A.; Mrs. Marietta Johnson, School of Organic Education, Fairhope, Alabama; Miss A. J. Callard, Ammanford, Wales; and Miss Grace Owen, delegate from the Nursery School Association of Great Britain. Three resolutions were passed, and subsequently endorsed by the Federation. The first recorded a decision to approach the Central Education Authorities of all countries, urging the desirability of establishing nursery schools as a part of the national systems of health and education. The second resolution embodied a decision to collect, report and keep up to date information as to the progress of the nursery school movement in all countries belonging to the Federation, and the third urged that the League of Nations be asked to include the pre-school period in their present inquiry into literature for children in various countries.

Bilingualism

It is interesting to note that one of the most keenly discussed topics was Bilingualism, on which the *N.E.F.* has just published a report written by Professor Bovet.

Unfortunately, Mr. A. J. Lynch, the representative of the *N.E.F.*, was prevented by illness from attending the Conference.

President's Resignation

The resignation of Dr. Paul Monroe from the office of President was deeply regretted, but the Federation are fortunate in having secured the services of Mr. Mander, Secretary of the National Union of Teachers, as President for the coming year.

OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

Home and School Council

In August, the Headquarters of the *International Federation of Home and School* were transferred to Great Britain, and the offices are now at 29, Tavistock Square. The *Federation* was originated by the ex-president, Mrs. A. H. Reeve, and there are now thirty-two countries which have formed or are forming *Home and School* movements. The following officers have been elected to serve for the next two years: President: Miss Ishbel MacDonald; Chairman of the Board: Rt. Hon. Lord Allen of Hurtwood; Hon. Secretary: Miss M. A. Payne; Vice-Presidents: Mrs. A. H. Reeve, U.S.A.; Dr. C. Bouglé, France; Dr. Dengler, Austria; Dr. George Kerby, Canada; Mrs. R. P. Alexander, Japan; Sr. Dr. Luis Morquio, South America; Dr. H. H. Kung, China. Apart from the Executive Committee, there are nine Committees dealing with matters affecting Child Life.

The *Home and School Council of Great Britain* has also taken over and reorganized the St. Christopher's Nursery Training College and Children's Home, which was founded in Tunbridge Wells in 1906. The nursery training includes both experience in the Nurseries—under the supervision of the Matron who is a fully trained hospital nurse—and in the Nursery School, and in addition, a training in domestic science. Special emphasis is placed on the importance of psychological understanding in the handling and education of young children and a further course in practical Child Guidance is being arranged. Inquiries should be sent to The Warden, St. Christopher's Nursery College, Pembury Road, Tunbridge Wells, Kent.

Australia

The Annual Meeting of the *Australian Council for Educational Research*, inaugurated in 1930 as a centre for research and investigation, was held in Melbourne from 18th to 21st August.

The *Council* reports that an exceedingly interesting experiment in methods of selecting pupils for secondary education is being carried out in Tasmania. At the Scholarship Examinations for the Hobart Schools in 1932, all pupils were given an ability test in addition to the scholastic examination. In the majority of cases, the two examinations selected the same pupils, but it was decided to admit a small number whose only claim was their high score in the ability test, and the results of the first terminal examinations seem to justify the admission of these pupils.

Various *Reports* which have a practical bearing on educational problems have already been published by the Council. These include:

No. 1. *INDIVIDUAL EDUCATION*. C. Fenner, D.Sc., Dip.Ed., A. G. Paull, B.A., B.Sc.

This report gives an account of a plan of individual work similar to the Dalton plan, but with certain special features, now in operation at the Thebarton Technical High School, South Australia.

No. 3. *PRIMARY EDUCATION BY CORRESPONDENCE*. K. S. Cunningham, M.A., Ph.D.

An account of the system of correspondence education for children of primary school age.

No. 4. *TRAINING FOR BUSINESS*. D. D. Copland, M.A., D.Sc.

This report discusses the value of a university education as a training for business and is based in part on the answers obtained from a questionnaire to business men.

International Bureau of Education

The Fourth Meeting of the Council of the *International Bureau of Education* (one of the *Bureaux* co-operating with the *N.E.F.*) was held in Geneva on 12th and 13th July. Prof. M. Bourquin (Belgium) was elected as President, and the Director, Prof. J. Piaget, gave an account of the work during 1932-33 and reported on the various inquiries which the *Bureau* is carrying out at the request of several Ministries of Education.

Following its successful study of children's literature, the *Bureau* is about to undertake an inquiry on Children's Magazines.

The sixth Special Course, organized by the *Bureau*, on *How to make the League of Nations Known*, was held from 31st July to 5th August.

The Psychological Centre for School and Home

A new venture has been brought to our notice which should be of considerable interest to many of our readers. We are all becoming familiar with the work of Clinics for problem children but here we have provision made for discovering the mental capacity of normal children, as well as of those presenting difficulties in home or school. Advice in connection with scholastic difficulties and emotional troubles can also be obtained and no doubt many parents and teachers will be glad to avail themselves of some branch of service offered by the *Psychological Centre for School and Home*. The address is 28, Gower Place, London, W.C.1, from which all particulars can be obtained. Amongst the many supporters of this *Centre* we see the names of Professor Cyril Burt, Miss Ishbel MacDonald, Miss Margaret Drummond, Dr. Susan Isaacs and Mr. J. H. Badley.

Institute for the Scientific Treatment of Delinquency

The Diagnostic and Therapeutic Clinic of this Institute will be available from 18th September, 1933. It is to be held at the West End Hospital for Nervous Diseases, Welbeck Street, London. Diagnostic reports will be made on the physical and mental state of delinquents with special reference to probable causes, and suitable cases will be treated. All applications should be made in the first instance to the Hon. Sec. for the Directorate, 56 Grosvenor Street, W.1.

Lectures for Teachers

The London County Council announces a full and varied programme of lectures on all subjects of interest to teachers. Full details as to the courses are

given in the Council's handbook, *Lectures and Classes for Teachers*, obtainable from County Hall.

Eighteen public lectures under the heading of *Modern Social Administration* are to be given at eight o'clock on Thursday evenings during the next session of the Morley College, 61, Westminster Bridge Road, London. The lectures, which will be given by experts, will aim at describing recent legal or administrative changes in the various social services, such as Housing, Public Health, Industrial Welfare and Delinquency.

A South African Newspaper for Children

An interesting publication for children in South Africa has been brought to our notice. One of its chief aims is to provide a medium whereby the children of English and Afrikaander descent may be brought together in friendship. At present, the news is restricted to South African topics, but it is hoped ideas will also be exchanged with the youth of other countries.

Exchange of Correspondence

The Secretary of one of the first *New Education* schools in Poland, Dworek Cisowy, is most anxious to correspond with teachers or older pupils of different nationalities, as the Polish girls are keenly interested in learning about the life and ideas of children in other countries. The address is Marol Chmielowska, Dworek Cisowy posta Czorsztyn, via Krakow, Poland, and letters should be in English, French, Russian or German.

NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF GREAT BRITAIN

The Annual Summer Conference of the Nursery School Association was held this year at Digswell Park Conference House and proved not only an instructive but a most enjoyable week-end.

The Conference, which was opened on 30th June by Mrs. Eveleigh, took the form of an intensive study of the child at the age when he is first eligible for the Nursery School, two years old.

In the early part of the Conference, Dr. Isaacs, the head of the new department of Child Development in the Institute of Education, put in a really heroic day's work. A most able lecture on the Psychology of the two-year-old was followed by group discussions and then, later, by a general discussion in which she herself dealt with the many problems that the audience raised.

Dr. Isaacs demonstrated the essential continuity in human development. Although knowledge and experience might be small, the mental processes of the child did not differ in kind from those of the adult. She showed in detail the various ways in which the child, like the adult, may master or attempt to master his environment—through manipulation, through speech, and through fantasy and imagination. She gave a full description of the attainments of the average child of two in these respects.

The emotional life of the child was given special attention in a most stimulating address by Dr.

Lowenfeld, who drew for her audience a very vivid picture of the child as he might be and of the child as, alas! he so often is.

But the question that appealed perhaps most strongly of all to the Conference was that of the two-year-old and the Nursery School. Here the untiring help of Miss Drummond was invaluable. It was realized that usually the two-year-old adjusts himself to the new conditions of Nursery School life without any great difficulty. Almost all children show beyond doubt that they ultimately derive very real benefit from the school. But in a small number of cases the initial introduction is found to be difficult. The many suggestions that were put forward for the solution of this difficulty were welcomed by all those responsible for Nursery School

management. Equally well appreciated was the help and advice given by Miss Abrahams and Dr. Crowley on Nursery School Diet. Superintendents who had to count every penny and every farthing spent on food realized the worth of their suggestions.

The very best thanks of the Association are due not only to the lecturers and Chairmen who took part, but to Madame Emmy Heim, who gave a recital of folk songs which was an unqualified delight.

Through the really generous contributions made by members, the Conference was conducted without any cost to the Association.

Fuller reports of the Conference and Lectures will be found in the September and following issues of *Mother and Child*.

Book Reviews

*A New World in the Making**

Reviewed by Prof. F. Clarke, McGill University, Montreal, Member of the Executive Board of the N.E.F.

. . . If there is anything common to the Fellowship all over the world, save good will and a conviction that education must stand no longer in ancient ways, it consists in what Dr. Delisle Burns calls a 'sense of the horizon'. . . . Anyone who attended the International Conference held by the Fellowship at Nice last summer must have observed how deeply that remarkable meeting was permeated by this 'sense of horizon'. It gave to the discussion of *A New World in the Making* by speakers in several languages and from all ends of the earth a surprising degree of unity; and that unity in turn made possible the unusual form in which the main contributions to the discussion are presented in this book. The idea of weaving them into a continuous argument was, I think, a happy one, and I venture to congratulate Mr. Rawson upon the skill with which he has carried it out. He has enabled his readers to comprehend the bearings of the debate even more fully than those who were present, while he has at the same time succeeded in preserving almost as much of the original voices as could have been expected to survive translation from one language into another. The result is a document of intense interest which deserves the close attention of all serious students of education as well as of all who, though not concerned with the technical problems of teaching or administration, yet realize how powerfully education influences those great movements of thought and feeling which will in the end determine 'the doubtful doom of human kind'.

From the Preface by Professor Sir Percy Nunn



FEW men would be so bold as to attempt the task of making a continuous and intelligible film from a large collection of miscellaneous photographs taken by different people. But Mr. Wyatt Rawson has undertaken something very much

like this in the effort to construct a continuous discourse from the wide diversity of materials which were presented at the Nice Conference last summer. And he has achieved remarkable success. He has been able to produce a coherent narrative without destroying the impression of diversity, and even of contradiction, which the original discussions must have left on those who heard them.

This is as it should be. We have all too much of the vague and superficial optimism which prophesies smooth things and cries peace where there is no peace, which attains easy solutions by ignoring the hard essentials of its problems, and which thinks that mankind can be served by paper agreements. The spirit that regards a Kellogg Pact as an end rather than as a beginning is all too strong among us.

Mr. Wyatt Rawson's faithful recording leaves the contradictions largely unresolved and the flimsinesses exposed for the blasts of the coming days to demolish.

Never was there a book which called more insistently for critical reading than this Report. For the compiler has wisely left it to the reader to do his own proper job. Thus it would be easy to gather from the volume a fine array of contradictions. They leap to the eyes again and again. But Mr. Rawson would have misrepresented the Conference had he eliminated them or toned them down.

Again, there could be no greater mistake than that of reading the report as though it were a systematic attempt to survey educational conditions from China to Peru. If it were that, some glaring omissions would have to be noted. Africa, China, Japan, Turkey; it is well to have such comments as the

* Report of the Sixth World Conference of the New Education Fellowship. Edited by Wyatt Rawson. (Published by the N.E.F. Price 8s. post free.)

Report offers on educational tendencies in such lands, but a real understanding of movements in any one of them calls for a wide and searching survey of social, racial and economic factors such as this report is quite unable to give.

The main impression left by the reading of it on the mind of the reviewer is that the field of our study for the next generation or two is only too plainly indicated. Studies of individual life and growth and psychology must continue; there are still harvests to be reaped in that field. Experiments feeling for a workable technique of individualization in the educative process itself must also continue, for in some ways the new 'science' promises to be even more tyrannical than the old paternalism. But there are no obscure horizons in this field; the procedure of enquiry can be genuinely objective and scientific, and the path ahead lies clear enough.

It is in the other field—of life-values and social philosophy—that the mists are so dense and threatening. Here science can give less help than some of us seem to believe. Men are not saved by information. As one of the contributors puts it, 'Knowledge as such does not liberate.' War might have passed into desuetude long ago if the direct teaching of pacifism could have prevented it, and to acquire accurate knowledge of the biology of sex is in itself no guarantee of a truly moral ordering of the sex-life.

There is something profoundly unhistorical in some of the more sanguine of the opinions expressed in the Report on what can be achieved by mere school-teaching. A glance or two at the history of Christianity should be enough to moderate the exaggeration of some of the hopes.

To this reviewer at least there seems to be much more weight in the contributions of those speakers who lay emphasis on the spiritual bankruptcy of this age; on its loss of sure sense of direction; on its inability to achieve a working balance of values in a stable social order, and, in general, on the menacing obscurity of the whole spiritual and cultural prospect. What is said by some contributors about the cult of individuality and by others about a coming age of plenty and leisure should be read against this sombre background. Our real task in the coming years is to share with philosopher and religious teacher, with historian and statesman, the exploration of that darkness. No man who does not feel it menacing his very soul at this befogged turn of human history can really measure the task before us.

Without such courageous and painful exploration, accompanied as it must be by much searching of spirit, talk of the importance of 'interest in something beyond self' and such remarks as 'Educators must somehow interpret the present in terms of the future,' are mere empty pulpiteering.

It is true that our practical contribution is to be made largely through the school (though certain speakers quoted in the Report still need to be reminded of the distinction between school and education). But the real *understanding* of our problem cannot even begin in these days until we look away from school and face squarely the world we are living in.

Let us hold to ideals of freedom by all means and at all costs, but we shall be left holding emptiness unless we recognize that freedom itself has come into peril through a vast failure of discipline. That a century or more of progressive emancipation should have ended in Hitlers and Mussolinis being not only tolerated but eagerly welcomed ought surely to give us pause. The blindest of all attitudes is the Pharisaical one of thanking God that we are not as other men are, and of hoping to meet a revolutionary situation by nothing more than a re-binding of our own old phylacteries. The call is for sympathetic understanding, above all else, and the way to that, though hard, is a way we must tread, not in detachment as sealed-up 'experts' or professionals, but in company with all the other fellow-seekers. Our specific 'expert' task is something much more limited. It will do no harm if we humble ourselves a little as educators and exalt ourselves a little as citizens.

One last word. A speaker urges: 'Let us make buildings that do not last.' The terrible thing is that he may be right. Was man ever such a wanderer as he is to-day, emancipated from the past only to become more helplessly than ever the slave of Time, clamped Ixion-like to its ever-accelerating wheel? What shall be the end of these things? No man can say. But it is in co-operation with our fellows to find some satisfying answer that our main work in the coming generations has to be done.

F. Clarke

The Intelligence of Scottish Children: A National Survey of an Age-group. *Publications of the Scottish Council for Research in Education*, V. (University of London Press. 5s.)

This volume describes the most ambitious project which the Scottish Council for Research in Education has so far undertaken. In 1932 a committee was appointed to make a mental survey of the school children of Scotland. For this purpose it was decided to apply a psychological test of intelligence to every boy or girl born during the year 1921. In all nearly 100,000 children were tested.

It is obvious that the success of so wide a survey must depend largely on the co-operation of education authorities and, above all, of the teachers themselves. Of the thirty-five education authorities in the country not one declined to assist. A well-deserved tribute is paid in the preface to the enthusiastic way in which the teachers and officials shouldered the heavy burden of additional work entailed by administering, marking, and tabulating the tests.

The tests employed consisted of a group test prepared by Professor Godfrey Thomson and a special set of picture tests for the more backward children: in addition a thousand children were tested individually by means of the Binet scale. Full details about the application of the tests, together with the test-material itself, are given in the report. The experiment could therefore be repeated by any authority, teacher, or parent who wished to compare

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results for a particular school or a particular child with the general level of the school population.

The results have been subjected to a most careful statistical analysis. The calculations show that the average mental ratio of the boys was approximately 100. So far, therefore, as we can judge the intelligence of a country by a single age-group, the Scottish population is neither above nor below that of other civilized countries, but is almost exactly normal as gauged by prevailing standards. It is true that the mental ratio of the girls was slightly lower than that of the boys. But the investigators are not disposed to attribute this difference to any innate inferiority of the feminine sex in Scotland, but simply to minor variations in the method of sampling. The range of individual differences, however, was definitely wider among the boys than among the girls. Boys apparently run more to extremes: girls cluster more closely about their average.

But altogether, the amount of individual variation from child to child, as disclosed by this survey, appears far greater than has hitherto been assumed. If a ratio of 90 to 110 is taken to represent the limits for the 'average child', then less than half the population of the Scottish schools are 'average' as the term is commonly used.

None of the defectives in the special schools was tested individually; and the evidence for the extent of mental deficiency was deduced from the distribution of the general results. Taking a mental ratio of 70 as the border line, the survey indicates that at least $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, possibly even as many as 3 per cent, of the school children must be mentally defective in the sense of needing special educational provision. These proportions tally quite closely with results obtained from recent surveys carried out in London and in various parts of England. In view of the difference in range, the number of mentally defective boys must exceed that of mentally defective girls by at least one third.

The whole investigation will prove of the highest value to the psychologist and social statistician. But the report abounds in interesting and suggestive matter alike for the teacher and for the parent. 'Problems of curricula, school equipment and teaching technique', it urges, and we might add the choice of school and school methods, 'cannot be solved, or indeed adequately discussed unless the age, sex, physique, temperament and capacity of the pupil are kept in mind.' Here is an illuminating effort to gain exact scientific information about the mental ability of one large section of our school population.

Joyce M. Burt

The Gestalt Theory. Bruno Petermann. (Kegan Paul. 15s.)

Part I of Petermann's *The Gestalt Theory* may be considered chiefly of historical interest. He has traced the development of what he now seems to consider a

completed theoretical doctrine, from its undifferentiated beginning stages to its present-day explicit form. He has done something which no member of the creative trio, Wertheimer, Koffka or Köhler, has attempted in print, namely, to show how each has built upon, supplemented and expanded the other's work, both experimental and theoretical. He has shown how the theory has become, not only more explicit, but also more cohesive and inter-locking.

Wertheimer's original experiments on apparent movement in 1912, with their new theoretical possibilities, are followed by Koffka's formulation of the anti-synthetic approach in 1914. This in turn is followed by Köhler's radical attempt to show Gestalt phenomena as belonging also in the physical and biological realms, and gives the topic a metaphysical significance in the proposed solution of the mechanist-vitalist dilemma. The 'Gestalt' as a problem gives way to the Gestalt as an explanatory principle and with Koffka's introduction of the 'Gestalt disposition' 'an integrating explanatory principle is introduced into the Gestalt theory'. Finally, with Köhler's further work, the emphasis again shifts to physical systems as exemplifying Gestalt characteristics, and we see the conception of psycho-physical parallelism give way to isomorphism in 1929.

In Part II the author has given an account of the actual experimental work of the exponents of the Gestalt theory. This collected material is valuable, since, at the moment, little exists under one cover to show the kind of problems which have interested and engaged the Gestalt theorist. The detailed criticism of this work, however, though systematic and careful, would seem to be over-weighted, and to obscure for the general reader the positive contributions which such experiments have undoubtedly made to psychology. For surely in so far as these experiments have enlarged the body of psychological knowledge, the theory which gave rise to them and which isolated them as crucial problems requiring experimental investigation, has made a definite and positive contribution to the science.

Part III, which 'appraises', condemns Gestalt theory on the grounds that it is not capable of satisfying the requirements it has set itself. Petermann also finds the underlying physiological and physical implications of the theory untenable. But he would actually retain in his own 'purely functional theory' the same requirements as laid down by Koffka in his demand for an anti-synthetic theory in 1914. One cannot help wondering in this connection, why the work of Lewin, so completely devoid of physiological implications, has not been touched on—work which exhibits so much of what Petermann demands in his own suggested programme, and yet which has sprung immediately from Gestalt soil.

Finally we may ask why a book, which of necessity is not easy reading, must be made more difficult by such laborious and quite untranslated sentences as 'Koffka's solution is the introduction of a somewhat far too vague concept . . .'

M. Harrower

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

A Monthly Magazine for Parents and Teachers

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

We are very glad to throw open the editorial columns of THE NEW ERA to a number of eminent educationists who have kindly consented to contribute the leading articles during the coming months. Miss Agnes Pirie contributes the editorial this month on 'The Pre-School Child'.

The Pre-School Child It is usual for people to have some principle which they set up as a standard for others to live by, and I myself almost began this article with a reference to the 'well-poised child' or the 'ideal child'. But though our particular brand of ideal child may fit into the pattern of our particular circle, he may have shortcomings when he is judged from another angle. In these days, when so many different systems are advocated both for psychological development and physical growth, it might be better to head one's remarks: 'One way to produce the ideal child', or 'how a good boy is made (two methods)'. And one might pick and choose one's ingredients. One recipe might have a vitamin basis with emphasis on fruit and vegetables and one might add, say, a small (or large) spoonful of the 'Go as you please attitude'. Another formula might be based on 'Anything from the larder provided it will chew—with a small dose of gland mixture (thyroid preferred) according to the personality desired'. But unfortunately none of these recipes work out in practice.

It is, however, interesting to speculate as to what kind of environment produces the best results. Is it the family group without the Nursery School, or is it the new Community Group experiment without family life? Will the formal institution produce the ideal citizen? As things are, most of us are still learning, and by the time parents have practised their new ideas on their children it will probably be too late for even the Benjamin to enjoy the fruits of their wisdom. The amazing thing

is that the child usually manages to survive.

Laying Sound Foundations Within recent years, more emphasis has been put on the physical basis of our thinking. 'We think with our muscles.' Throughout the system runs this vital energy which motivates and gives expression to our urge to create, whatever form it may take. So close is the interaction between mind and body that the tissues of the body itself may even think as well as feel, so that emotion and thought may well be one. Thinking and doing cannot be separated either, for it seems that we are aware with the whole of our bodies. We are creatures of habit. The same thoughts and actions repeated again and again throughout the ages have dug deep channels in our system and in the course of time they become automatic. We call these habits instinctive and perhaps they had their origin in reflex action. New habits of thought make their impression on our system and old ones die out through neglect. So it is with the toddler. The slant given by his early upbringing to his way of thought and the habits he forms decides his future within the first few years of his life.

The Child at Home Family relationships play an important part in these early years; harmony—real harmony—in the household should be sought even at the risk of compromise. But unfortunately harmony cannot be made to order. The child senses upsets in the family life, and their effect on him is often clearly apparent, especially if there is a constant atmosphere of strain and unhappiness.

Within every child, there is the dynamic urge to power. He wants a certain amount of attention and plenty of outlet for his energy. The good home will supply the material round which his activity can be centred so that he can use his energy and power in making or doing things. The parent in the average home can, with a little thought, so easily provide the necessary material. We all know how the child repeats the work of the adult—he drives the engine, loads the car, washes dolls' clothes. Even the household saucepans can be useful; the little child enjoys fitting the lids correctly.

The adult should see that in his relationships with other members of the family the child is helped to feel sure of himself and does not suffer either from a feeling of inferiority or from a feeling of superiority. This, however, is an extremely hard task for any parent, and it is not always possible for him to help the child to overcome his difficulties, even when he knows their cause. There are so many influences at work in the young child's life that at times it is almost impossible to trace the origin of undesirable behaviour, however hard one may try.

Diet and Sleep in Home and School With regard to sleeping accommodation, whether at home or in a nursery school, it is most essential that the child should be sufficiently warm. It is far better that he should be warm in an airy room than slightly cold out of doors. For one thing, he sleeps better. The question of diet should take a prominent place in the programme of the Nursery School, for apart from its physical effects poor diet is often the cause of irritability or bad behaviour.

A good supply of milk with a limited amount of eggs and cheese, and a plentiful supply of fruit and vegetables, makes an excellent diet for the growing child. It can be inexpensive, for such fruits as dates, raisins, prunes, etc., can be had very cheaply. Oranges and apples can be given in more limited quantities where money is scarce. A half-orange, raisins or soaked, uncooked prunes can be given on entry to the Nursery School in the morning. Half an apple at a time is usually sufficient for younger children and can be given in place of milk pudding at mid-day, say, twice a week. Well-cleaned potatoes boiled or baked in their

jackets ensure that the child is not robbed of the valuable salts which lie just below the skin. Over-cooked foods should be avoided, and milk should be given raw as much as possible. Raw grated vegetables can be taken in the form of sandwiches at tea time and these should never be costly, since cabbage (shredded) and carrot, lettuce, celery, tomato, are usually cheap. It is interesting to hear from mothers at the Welfare Centre or the Nursery School how much their children's health and habits improve on this modern diet.

The Child in the Nursery School The Nursery School group usually numbers about thirty-five; but for the younger children, the two-year-olds, this is often too large a group, and unless the young ones can be kept apart, one is tempted to think that until the age of two and a half at least, the child is better with his mother, even if the home is poor.

The material for play out of doors should include a sand pit, barrels, packing cases, large blocks, wheelbarrows, a plank or two, and any big toys that will not easily go out of order. Indoors, one can have educative apparatus or toys, beads, clay, small blocks, all kinds of sense training material. In working with a group of children, it is best always to use apparatus which can be washed or disinfected, and in the case of the average Nursery School, this excludes all soft toys and fragile material. It is good, however, to hear from bacteriologists that books carry less infection than is generally supposed.

In observing children playing out of doors, swinging, climbing, manipulating big toys, one is driven to the conclusion that the less the adult interferes, even in cases of apparent danger, the fewer accidents there will be. Immediately the child or adult concentrates on certain separate steps or movements, which would otherwise have been automatic, an accident is likely to occur. When the child does out of bravado go beyond bounds, a punishment is justifiable, but this very rarely happens. The timorous child will often refuse to try a climbing apparatus which looks dangerous, but in some cases, it may be wise to put him, even against his will, on top of the shute or the jungle gym, so that he can see that

things are not always as dangerous as they look.

Parent Education The Nursery School or Child Welfare Centre makes a good starting point for Parent Education. It is constantly found that social meetings with the parents make work with the children much easier. Circumstances connected with the home which affect the child can be discussed, and behaviour problems can be aired. Such meetings can also be evenings of recreation as well as of instruction, and classes for Physical Culture, Folk Dancing, Sewing and so on, are usually very successful. Parent education is most effective when the parents actually learn through experience with the Nursery School children. Talking about behaviour problems, though very useful, gives only a limited amount of help compared with actual practice with a group of children. In Berkeley, California, a group of twenty mothers interested in Child Guidance clubbed together and started a Nursery School called 'The Children's Community'. The school began in 1927 with one trained teacher. The mothers took it in turns to spend one forenoon a week assisting in the school. The plan worked very well, and the co-operation was so good that by the beginning of the second year it was decided to do without a teacher, and one of the ablest mothers was chosen to run the school, the expenses of a help for her own home being paid by the group. Meetings were held at least once a month to discuss behaviour problems and these were open to fathers. The experiment appears to have been entirely successful and of great benefit to all.

Nursery Schools in America In America, the Nursery School often finds its home very near the University, for there the study of Psychology necessitates a study of child behaviour at first hand, and while we in England provide mainly for the under-privileged child, these American nurseries cater rather for the child of university circles. Others are run in well-to-do districts solely for the benefit of the child, for there is very little space for play in the modern apartment.

There is the minimum of formality in the American Nursery School. Music, rhythm and

story telling are given to the group, but there is free play all the time and plenty of scope for all kinds of imaginative play. The adult keeps very much in the background. In this country, there has been a tendency to follow a fixed programme of activities throughout the day, but this practice seems to be dying out. Where space out of doors is limited, such a practice is advantageous and may be a necessity, but the free time-table is certainly best, though so long as the child is happy, interested and unaware of the limitations of his environment, more formal procedure does not much matter.

Obedience in Home and School

When things do not go right in the Nursery School or the home, it is very easy to become irritable with the child. It is hardly necessary to say that the 'revenge' motive must never come into play. Difficult situations do not often arise in the Nursery School, for with a little judicious handling, one can usually manage to avoid them. If this is not possible, the difficulty should be treated lightly, without emphasizing guilt or releasing an undue amount of emotion. It is not only what is said to a child, but what one feels towards him that counts, because these subtle influences permeate the atmosphere and are far more powerful than words. There is no need ever to challenge a child to get his obedience. To speak (and feel!) as though one expected the request to be fulfilled is more likely to be effective than to dare the child not to obey. It is better to go on with one's work evidently taking it for granted that the job will be done than to give a command and wait to see if that command will be obeyed. The latter course raises the question of obedience and disobedience in his mind. Requests and orders should be as few as possible, don'ts should come but rarely; but when an order is given, then it must be obeyed.

In bringing up the young child, whether at home or at school, it is of the utmost importance that he should be made to feel that he really counts for something in the family or the school group. There should be plenty of scope for natural and spontaneous affection. But in dealing with these questions of discipline and freedom, work and play, success lies alike for parent or teacher in finding the happy mean.

Tests of Physical Efficiency in the State Schools of Austria

HANS LANGER

'SCHOOL Gymnastics,' states the Syllabus of the Austrian Secondary Schools, 'should ensure the minimum of adequate stimulus necessary for the development of physical fitness.

They should aid in making physical exercises a habit of daily life and a well-conceived and gladly performed duty. By encouraging physical exercises the school seeks to train the children to acquire complete physical fitness while preserving a good figure, to have a pleasing deportment of body and grace of movement at their

work, to induce in them an attitude of consideration and helpfulness towards others and to promote public-spiritedness and a sense of responsibility and the consciousness of forming an integral part of the community.'

In order to achieve these ends and to fulfil their task of education the Austrian State Schools must not only carry out that which is absolutely necessary but must allow fullest scope to every possibility which may contribute towards success.

The Tests

The Central Committee of the State Schools, which is a branch of, and directly responsible to, the Austrian Board of Education, made arrangements, therefore, in 1921, for the introduction of Tests of Physical Efficiency. These Tests have since been held every year and are a special institution of the State Schools, not

being undertaken officially by any of the other Secondary Schools of Austria.

The Tests consist of:—

A. General Tests of Physical Ability.

B. Swimming Tests.

C. Inter-School Games.

As the school year in Austria begins in the middle of September and ends at the beginning of July, the General Tests are held during the month of May at about the same time at each school and the Swimming Tests during the last week in June.

The Inter-School Games, which were also held at the end of June, have had to be cancelled since 1932 as the prevailing economic conditions do not allow of the outlay for the cost of travelling.

All the State Schools (i.e. the four Boys' Schools at Vienna-Breitensee, Traiskirchen, Vienna-Neustadt and Liebenau near Graz) hold the General and Swimming Tests in their own grounds and swimming baths. The Tests are arranged in the following grades according to age:—

Grade I	Classes 1 & 2	Age 11 & 12 years
„ II	„ 3 & 4	„ 13 & 14 „
„ III	„ 5 & 6	„ 15 & 16 „
„ IV	„ 7 & 8	„ 17 & 18 „

All boys are obliged to attend as part of the school curriculum. Exception is only made in the case of boys who are permanently exempted from physical exercises or those who are certified as sick by the school doctor.



Basket Ball at Vienna-Neustadt

A. General Tests

The events are as follows:—

Grade	PHYSICAL TESTS		
I	50 m. Run	Long jump	Ball-throwing (from stand- (small ball, 80 gr.) ing position)
II	60 m. Run	High jump	Ball-throwing (from stand- (large ball, 400 gr., ing position) thrown underarm)
III	80 m. Run	Long jump	Putting the weight (with run) (5 kilogr.)
IV	100 m. Run	High jump	Ball-slinging (with run) (1½ kilogr.)

No classes are held on the day the Tests are made. Before they begin the headmaster makes a short speech to the boys and the whole staff on the importance of the tests. The gymnastic masters of the school act as the principal judges, with the help of other members of the staff who act as assistant judges and enter the results into lists which have been previously made out.

Each boy is allowed one run, three throws in the throwing tests, three tries at long-jump and three tries at each height for high-jump (the bar is raised 5 cm. each time).

Each class (consisting of about 30 boys) requires about two hours in which to complete the Tests. In

former years gymnastic masters from the other schools assisted, so that at a school of about 350 boys it only took about 2½ hours to complete the Tests. Since 1932 it has not been possible, for economic reasons, for masters from other schools to collaborate, so that the Tests have been carried out chiefly by the masters in their own schools and the time required by the larger schools is about 8 hours.

A cheerful and joyous atmosphere prevails on the sports ground while the Tests are being

made. The smaller boys follow the achievements of their seniors with keen enthusiasm and the latter take a warm interest in the attainments of the younger generation. Cheers of applause greet not only the high achievements of the finest athletes but also the efforts of the less gifted who put their very best into the work.

After the Tests the average standard of achievement is worked out and the result made known to the boys, together with any records which may have been made by individuals.

In these Tests at the State Schools no allowance is made for anything but age, i.e. the state of physical development is not taken into account. The Tests are regarded as demanding a certain set standard of efficiency which spurs on the physically gifted boys to perfect themselves and encourages the weak ones to improve.

The following figures show results obtained at the Tests:—

(1) AVERAGE RESULTS FROM ALL THE STATE SCHOOLS FOR THE YEARS 1922-33.

These figures represent the average results of parallel classes in the four State Schools in all the years since the Tests were introduced. The figures

in brackets show the total number of boys tested in each case.

Grade I	50 m. Run	Long jump (standing position)	Ball-throwing (long distance)
Class 1	9·1 secs. (2956)	166 cm. (2065)	31·47 m. (2073)
Class 2	8·8 secs. (1711)	176 cm. (1727)	37·03 m. (1747)
Grade II	60 m. Run	High jump (standing position)	Ball-throwing (heavy ball)
Class 3	9·9 secs. (1903)	78 cm. (1910)	20·25 m. (1203)



Long Jump : Breitensee



Breitensee Boys before the Tests

Grade II <i>contd.</i>	60 m. Run	High jump (standing position)	Ball-throwing (heavy ball)
Class 4	9.6 secs. (1506)	86 cm. (1516)	22.99 m. (1202)
Grade III	80 m. Run	Long jump (with run)	Putting the weight
Class 5	11.9 secs. (1210)	404 cm. (1234)	7.40 m. (996)
Class 6	11.4 secs. (995)	432 cm. (1010)	8.60 m. (922)
Grade IV	100 m. Run	High jump (with run)	Ball-slinging
Class 7	13.7 secs. (814)	132 cm. (807)	31.70 m. (874)
Class 8	13.5 secs. (711)	136 cm. (697)	33.68 m. (767)

The variation in the numbers of boys tested can be explained as follows. The small variation in the numbers of one class is due to the fact that slight illness may prevent some boys taking part in certain events. For instance, the doctor may allow some boys to take the throwing tests but not the running or jumping. Greater variation within one class—as in the *Ball Throwing* of Grade II and *Putting the Weight* of Grade III—is explained by the fact that in the early years a heavy hard ball (1 kilogr. in weight) was used, which was replaced in 1926 by a light soft ball, and in the case of *Putting the Weight*, the weight was at first thrown from a ring, but from 1926 onwards a run was allowed. The results, therefore, of these tests in the earlier years could not be

included when calculating the average figures. The falling-off in the numbers of boys between the lowest and the highest class is due on the one hand to boys leaving school before the end of the school course, and on the other, to the fact that owing to the gradual building-up of the classes in the schools, results from the lowest classes are available for 12 years, whereas those from the highest classes are only available for 7 years.

These average results may be considered as scarcely influenced at all by external circumstances such as momentary physical conditions, weather, temperature, etc. Variations due to these causes have been noted in the results of the separate

years, especially in the case of record achievements of individual boys. Record achievements in the Tests are in no way sought after, but, should they be made, they are given full recognition and naturally bring great pleasure to the boys. The following figures represent the record results obtained up to the present:—

(2) RECORD RESULTS OF INDIVIDUAL BOYS 1922-33.

Grade I	50 m. Run	Long jump (standing position)	Ball-throwing (long distance)
Class 1	7.0 secs.	225 cm.	59.60 m.
Class 2	7.1 secs.	235 cm.	73.65 m.
Grade II	60 m. Run	High jump (standing position)	Ball-throwing (heavy ball)
Class 3	7.6 secs.	110 cm.	33.90 m.
Class 4	7.7 secs.	120 cm.	39.40 m.
Grade III	80 m. Run	Long jump (with run)	Putting the weight
Class 5	9.9 secs.	581 cm.	12.75 m.
Class 6	9.7 secs.	590 cm.	14.35 m.
Grade IV	100 m. Run	High jump (with run)	Ball-slinging
Class 7	12.1 secs.	165 cm.	48.70 m.
Class 8	11.7 secs.	175 cm.	55.80 m.

B. Swimming Tests

The Swimming Tests were introduced in one Grade in 1924 and have existed in their present form since 1927. The State School at Breiten-see owns an indoor swimming bath, the School at Traiskirchen an indoor and an

open-air bath, and the Schools at Vienna-Neustadt and Liebenau each an open-air bath. Swimming is an essential part of physical training and its instruction is a part of the duties of the gymnastic masters.

In the Swimming Tests (which are divided into four Grades similar to those of the General Tests) each boy is required to cover a certain distance; any stroke may be used and no attention is paid to speed. The distances and the prescribed way of starting are as follows:—

Grade	Class	
I	1 & 2	30m. Optional start
II	3 & 4	100m. Jump or Dive at start
III	5 & 6	200m. Dive at start
IV	7 & 8	300m. „ „ „

These Tests are held by the gymnastic master in the baths of their own School at the end of June. They were held in the autumn for the school years 1928-29 and 1929-30 only. In the year 1927-28 they were not held.

The percentage of Swimmers to Non-Swimmers in the four State Schools was as follows:—

1926-27	77·1 per cent
1927-28	—

1928-29	74·6 per cent
1929-30	75·8 „ „
1930-31	93·3 „ „
1931-32	88·9 „ „
1932-33	91·3 „ „

The Non-Swimmers are largely boys from the lowest classes, but they are also to be found in the upper classes; for among the new boys entering the higher forms there are always some who are unable to swim.

When the last boy of the class passes his Swimming Test, the exultation of the boys of the class knows no bounds; the lower classes in particular are extremely proud to be '100 per cent.' In the preparation for the Swimming Tests the spirit of helpfulness and comradeship is brought out to a high degree among the boys who are willing to stand by their fellows and help them in the most unselfish way in order that they may reach the required standard and pass the Swimming Test at the end of the year.

C. Inter-School Games

The Inter-School Games were also arranged in four grades similar to those of the General



Boys of Traiskirchen School parading after the Tests

and Swimming Tests. The Games played in each grade were as follows:—

Grade	Class	
I	1 & 2	Volkerball (Played with a football thrown with the hand, 12 players a side.)
II	3 & 4	Schlagball (Played with a stick and hard ball, 12 players a side.)
III	5 & 6	Basket Ball (11 players a side.)
IV	7 & 8	Hand Ball (11 players a side.)

Each class sent in one team. Heats were held at each school among the teams of the same grade and the best team of each grade was sent to compete at the Inter-School Games. These were held either at Traiskirchen or at Vienna-Neustadt at the end of June on three consecutive half-days; but they have had to be abandoned since the school year 1931-32 on

account of the cost of travelling which they entailed.

At the Inter-School Games each team played against every other team of the same grade from the other schools and the winning team was decided by the number of points gained. The formal announcement of the places obtained in the various Grades always marked the close of this festive day of joyous activity. No prizes were awarded.

The days on which the Tests of Physical Efficiency are held stand out above all others for the boys of the Austrian State Schools. The Tests have proved themselves not only to be desirable from the point of view of the physical development of the boys, but also to be of great educative value and, above all, they afford the boys many days of pure enjoyment.

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The Missing Link

W. H. D. ROUSE

AS soon as we lose touch with nature, and with man's everyday life, we become unreal. The farmer lives hand-in-hand with nature; and along with his practical skill in using nature, which he does by yielding to her strength and humouring her moods, he wins a profound practical wisdom in the affairs of life. Æschylus calls the good ruler a 'good judge of sheep', *προβατογνώμων*. Mr. Weller chose his lawyers as 'the very best judges of a horse you ever knowed', and goes on, 'the man as can form a ackerate judgement of a animal, can form a ackerate judgement of anything.' One who is patient and firm enough to ride a spirited horse has the hands to manage a form of spirited boys, if he applies his acquired skill to that problem. But the man who lives in an office, or who thinks a loaf is to be got merely by paying sixpence in a shop, is apt to err when he has to decide questions which turn on the well-being of men. Still more so the mechanic, brought up in a town full of mechanics, whose task is to run a machine which someone else has made and whose thoughts are limited to the desire for a higher wage. Education ought to correct the faults of these kinds of men. That can be done only by instructing them in human life and history and directing their blind instincts, which in Englishmen at least are noble and sound, by feeding and guiding their imagination and making them used to see and hear beautiful things. This is a difficult task.

Education and Human Nature

It is made more difficult by the control of schools by men of small knowledge and usually no experience sitting amid the pigeon-holes of an office. Their fussiness for uniformity, for statistics, for papers in quadruplicate, for anything that can be written down, keeps them out of touch with living children who speak and laugh and cry and by themselves are continually moving about in a world full of wonders. The inveterate meddling of such men also is directed ever more and more to details, whereas all they can profitably do is to indicate broad outlines, and that only if they are them-

selves ruled by a wise man who understands human nature. Very rarely indeed do we find these virtues in a politician; and seldom has he the indispensable principle of a good ruler:—find the best man you can for a job and leave him alone.

The part of nature which we have to do with is the boy or girl; and it must be admitted that we have greatly neglected their human nature, and rather have imposed upon them a system of instruction through books which regards the intellect without asking what place intellect has in the child's nature at any stage. Whereas we ought to aim at a whole man, with all his bodily and mental powers developed and under control of the will, we have a system which produces on the average clerks more or less fit for an office. This was the device of ignorant men, terrified by the spectacle of Germany conquering France in 1870 and improvising a Board of Education in an office.

But happily there were many enterprising spirits who were not satisfied, but worked in various ways to bring their intellectual work into touch with the children's nature. There was Froebel, whose work has made a new world of the school for young children; and his many followers and fellow-workers on the same lines. There was Montessori, and there were others.

Direct Method

But the older boys and girls were left in the desert, until the modern language reform, called the Direct Method, showed what might be done for one department of intellectual life. The aim of those who devised it was strictly practical—to teach the use of a foreign language for business and for everyday life, and this at once brought the work into touch with something real. But they found, perhaps to their own surprise, that this method was the best way to teach understanding and enjoyment of fine literature. In English, a similar triumph was won by Mr. Caldwell Cook, whose brilliant inventions were at once copied everywhere. English teachers had no bad traditions to hinder them; as a rule, English was not taught at all

and cram-books were not rooted in schools. Everyone now grows Mr. Cook's flowers, and few remember who found the seed. A similar new departure has been made in history by Mr. Happold, at Salisbury.

From all these experiments, it became clear that the teachers of children can bring their work into touch with what is real to children, not by repressing their natural impulses, but by using them, restraining them, and guiding them; as the horseman uses those of his horse. No man is strong enough to control a horse if the horse uses his own strength; but by kindly training, he can make the horse want to do what the horseman wants him to do, and both work together in sympathy. Children are full of fancy and imagination, and love to talk, sing, dance, act, hear and tell stories, and run about and play. These impulses the teacher can use: and he can gradually train the unruly body until it can even sit still, and the mind until it stays intent under control of the will. Their work will thus be chiefly bodily at first, and chiefly intellectual at last, but it will grow from one to the other in a natural way.

The Classics and the Direct Method

This brings me to my special matter of interest, how these principles can be applied to the teaching of Latin and Greek. Our traditional method was not a bad one. The skeleton of Latin, to take the more common of the two, was printed in books and learnt as needed, but the language was also actually used; it was spoken regularly in school, and this part of the system was not written down. We learn what it was like all over Europe by such books as the dialogues of Corderius or Erasmus. But when Latin ceased to be a language known in all countries and used for ordinary intercourse, only the bookish part was left; and this became so elaborate, and texts were so encumbered with notes, that the ideal came to be not to know the texts of the authors, but everything about them.

The Direct Method, applied to these languages, attempts to recall us to realities by making the languages real through use. Thus the material of the early years is no longer goddesses and queens (put in because they are words of the first declension, although

creatures rarely met with in a boy's life), but chairs, windows, chalk, blackboard, coming and going, and all the common acts and things of their own life. Conjugations and declensions are brought in as they are wanted, not as the grammarian wants them. Of course a system has to be devised which will give things gradually and gently, and such a system has been devised. The grammar has to be learnt, but it is learnt in a different order and practised in a different way—by constant use.

This plan has been in use now for thirty years, and it covers the whole work of the Perse School; it has been a success and it has brought with it one pre-eminent advantage which alters the whole atmosphere. It is found that if it be properly taught, the boys enjoy it from the first lesson to the last: their temper is not resentment and a wonder what all this rubbish means, but contentment, since they know what it means and enjoy the feeling of mastery which they gain day by day. They know they are learning, and what they learn, they use for familiar purposes, and in that mood of banter and chaff which is the natural mood of English boys.

Shall the Classics Go or Stay?

Unfortunately the leaders of the profession have on the whole ignored this, and although often appealed to that they might at least investigate, have been content to leave it alone. Privately many masters, perhaps most, will lament the drudgery of their work and the waste of labour and time: publicly, they say nothing at all, but they refuse to believe that the drudgery is unnecessary and that waste of labour and time need not be. Not that hard work is unnecessary: nothing good can be got without hard work. But the labour we delight in physics pain: hard work is not drudgery. There is all the difference in the world between the treadmill and the football field. Under the influence of senseless drudgery many masters have given up hope, and like Mr. A. C. Benson, have desired to wipe out classical study altogether from schools, except for a few choice spirits. But large numbers of subordinate masters and mistresses have taken the trouble to investigate: about 800 to 1000 within my own knowledge have done so, and perhaps half of

These have joined Summer Schools where the work is practised and discussed. How far they have carried it into their own schools I do not know: I do know that many have done so as far as they could and as far as their chiefs allowed, but they are all hampered by the creeping paralysis of public examinations which are the great forcing-beds of cram.

The general question of the value of classical

education is too wide for me to consider now; but I have no doubt, and all my experience goes to show it, that no study can approach it as a preparation for any kind of practical life: it teaches more than any other study the secrets of the human heart. As for natural science, a good classical boy after leaving school will catch up his scientific friends and beat them hand over hand in their own subject.

Parent Education—A South African Experiment

TISSA EYBERS

IN South Africa woman's right to vote is so newly acquired that it has not yet led to any great interest in politics on her part: her chief interest is still her children. Nearly all the women's organizations have as their main object the care of children, and formerly they concentrated on providing a good education—which meant being able to pass the matriculation examination. But during the last decade educators themselves have begun to criticize the type of education received, and the thought and discussion resulting from this criticism led parents to doubt whether traditional education was all that they had hoped. They began to search their own hearts and to wonder whether they themselves were fulfilling their duty towards their children. They were forced to define this duty, and so discovered that they must study their children carefully and with an open mind. They found, in many cases to their surprise, that the subject was really worth studying, and further, that it demanded a great deal of close attention.

There was very little of the attitude of the social worker and reformer about these parents. They were all trying to secure the best for their own children. Already, however, they are encountering obstacles which only the authorities responsible can remove, and it may be, therefore, that they will find themselves compelled before long to have recourse to agitation and political action.

Study soon convinced them that the children's school education could not claim their full attention: they must attend also to their pre-school and out-of-school education, their health and recreation, the formation of

their characters, their future careers. They might have been discouraged by the difficulties before them if three particular people had not come to them in the hour of need.

Founding the Parents' Association in Pretoria

Dr. Maria de Water, who had been overseas to qualify in medicine, had also gained much experience in child guidance work. On her return to South Africa she established a Child Guidance Clinic in connection with the University of Pretoria and became its first Director. She arranged courses for parents on such subjects as the early training of children, the attitude of the parent towards the school and of the child towards the school, the child's relation to other children, recreation and play, and other kindred subjects. These courses were so successful and the enthusiasm of the parents so great that when Mrs. Beatrice Ensor, Director of the *New Education Fellowship*, visited Pretoria in 1930 and delivered another series of inspiring lectures, she gave the further impetus to the parents' desire for study which culminated in the founding that year of the *Parents' Association*. This was primarily the work of Miss Lucille Thompson, who for three years filled the post of chief of social work at the Child Guidance Clinic of Pretoria University.

The Association grew to be a flourishing and well-organized body, with the following among its aims: to promote child welfare in home, school and community; to raise the standard of home life; to secure more adequate laws for the care and protection of women and children; to bring home and school into closer

relationship so that parents and teachers may co-operate intelligently in the training of the child, and to encourage co-operation in this field between educators and the general public.

Study Circles

The Association therefore is essentially educational. The study programmes which were prepared for 1931-1933 indicate the variety of problems with which the parents have found themselves faced. They fully realized that it was not possible for each member to study every question and they therefore divided themselves into groups and allocated a definite set of problems to each section for investigation and fortnightly discussion. This plan is undoubtedly excellent: it considerably widens the horizon of the members and the work of the Association becomes really instructive. The parents try to get the benefit of group opinion in their individual problems and the interchange of ideas and experience proves of inestimable value to all concerned. Towards the end of the year a special meeting of the whole Association is held and the findings of the various sections are reported and discussed.

During 1931-1933 the Pretoria Association divided itself into the following main sections:—

- 1931—(a) *The Cinema.*
- (b) *Recreation.*
- (c) *Parent Education.*
- 1932—(a) *Recreation.*
- (b) *Co-operation between Home and School.*
- (c) *Health.*
- (d) *Nursery School.*
- 1933—(a) *Recreation.*
- (b) *Child Training.*
- (c) *Nutrition.*
- (d) *Home and School.*

The *Cinema* study group was appointed to investigate the effects of the Cinema on children and the possibilities of obtaining better films for them. This subject has been considered by almost every Parent Association in other countries, and it occupied an important place at the *International Federation of Home and School* meeting in July, 1931. An interesting address was given at one of our monthly meetings by a member of the film censorship board.

The *Recreation* section investigated what was being done with regard to games, playgrounds and parks in some of the larger centres like Johannesburg, Bloemfontein, Cape Town and Pretoria. It collected information on questions such as the following: Are all the schools provided with gymnasiums and playing fields? Are there a sufficient number of parks and other recreation grounds? Are such grounds situated in the poorer or more wealthy districts? Has any municipality investigated the relationship between youthful delinquency and the absence of playing fields?

The *Home and School* section paid attention in 1932 to the problem of closer co-operation between home and school. On the whole the school is doing very little in establishing contacts. It is still isolated and therefore sometimes misunderstood and frequently criticized. Much remains to be done in this direction in Pretoria and in the Union as a whole. This year the members of the *Home and School* section have been studying the training of teachers and the curriculum in various countries. Parents are beginning to realize that since the nation has new demands to make of its educational system, a new body of teachers must be trained to meet them. The tendency in all parts of the world is to train primary and secondary teachers at Universities: then why not in South Africa?

The *Health* group adopted as its motto 'Get to know your city!' and outlined the following subjects for study: What infant clinics are there and what are they doing? In what way can the Association further the work of the Child Welfare Society? What is the position in regard to the infectious diseases of children, particularly with reference to the prevention of the carriage of infection from native quarters into the city? Is venereal disease under control, especially among native servants and girls working as children's nurses? Is there any supervision of the milk and the water supplied to the city and especially to the schools? Could medical inspection be arranged for pre-school children, especially those of five and six years of age? (The public school life of a child in South Africa starts with his seventh year.)

The *Nursery School* section. The Pretoria Association contributes to the funds of a

nursery School which was opened in Pretoria 1932, and which aims at providing a wholesome environment for pre-school children. Each member of this section visited the school once a fortnight and observed the children and the teacher's methods. Results were reported and discussed, members thus gaining the benefit of what to them were valuable observations.

Educational Guidance

It is a subject of regret to the Pretoria Association that next to nothing has been done by the Union of South Africa to guide and advise our boys and girls in the choice of a career. In drawing up a list of subjects to be studied by parents, therefore, it was felt that educational guidance should be given a prominent place, not only because it is of such vital importance to our children, but because it has been so neglected by our educational authorities. Members of our Association can obtain advice; but what of the thousands of parents who have neither information nor literature at their disposal, and do not know if it exists? We feel that here is a matter in which the schools can help the parents. We do not think that we need wait until vocational psychologists come, as we hope they will, to test our children's special aptitudes and weaknesses: with the findings of our teachers to supplement our own observation we should be able to supply a great deal of helpful information.

This year the Association, though retaining its separate identity, became affiliated to the *New Education Fellowship*, to enable members to come into closer touch with the teaching professions represented in its local branch: at present I do not know of any steps taken by the teachers to establish contacts with the parents or their organizations. Out of our annual subscription of 7s. 6d, 2s. 6d. goes to the *New Education Fellowship*, which meets once every three months. The Association is also affiliated to the *International Federation of Home and School* and, as a body, pays a small affiliation fee.

Progress and Plans

We have planned an interesting programme for the rest of this year. Among other things we are studying the works of the various Educationists who are lecturing at the *World Education Conference* in South Africa in July, 1934, so that when they visit Cape Town and Johannesburg they will not be strangers to us.

The Association goes quietly on from strength to strength, promoting individual and group study, and keeping ever in mind its main object—to train better mothers. At the beginning of this year, Mrs. Ensor visited Pretoria again and gave us unsparingly of advice and guidance. When this advocate of the New Education left us, our members felt a new confidence in the value of their work and a new inspiration to proceed with it.

A SPECIAL NUMBER OF THE NEW ERA

will appear in JANUARY and will be devoted to the
Teaching of Mathematics

Among the Contributors will be P. B. Ballard, Margaret Drummond, Clement V. Durell and Carleton Washburne.

Build and Learn!

An Account of an Experiment Carried Out in a Liverpool School

K. DANIELL

IN the light of psychology applied to child training there are certain laws which we cannot ignore and which alter our whole attitude to education.

We must recognize the child's instinctive tendency to 'do', to reach out to the world, investigate and experiment with his environment. If once we allow him freedom to do this, we find he is incidentally developing his own powers of concentration and attention through the force of the absorbing interest caused by the satisfaction of his instinctive need. Again, through this activity his will power, the very essence of himself, emerges, and instead of reacting blindly to external stimuli, he becomes a self-conscious being aware of the ends for which he acts.

We also know that we must not consider what we shall teach the child so much as what the child will learn. Where his interest lies, there will he make effort and develop: where he has no interest, he will be deaf and unintelligent. We must know too just the right moment for any teaching we may do. When the child asks, then we should be ready and in a position to tell him all he wants to know. If we thrust his interest aside or put him off, his faith in us decreases and with it our power to teach him in the future.

The child's individuality, the strength of his belief in himself, is the sum total of his power to live and will to do. Therefore we must remember to respect his emerging 'ego'. Only thus will he respect us, and only then can we influence him for what we consider to be his good. For having above the animals the power of choice, the free will to do good or evil, the power to consider cause and effect, experience in the form of contact with his environment and his fellows will teach him that he cannot live according to his own desires alone, but must modify his reactions and become a social being. Then a group consciousness will emerge and later a sense of responsibility for his actions and a desire for co-operation with his fellows.

Creating a Free Environment

From the teacher's point of view, the new method of dealing psychologically with children—giving them as much freedom as possible in studying them and helping them—means far more work than the old method. It is not a short-cut to the three R's, nor are the three R's its aim. In fact, freedom for the child reverses the usual order of things and it is a case of 'do not for the teacher rather than for the child. It is easier to do a thing for oneself than to let a child do all he can, and it is more pleasing to finish off his work and titivate it than to leave it crude but undeniably his. It is hard to live with forty or fifty growing lives who seem at times to push one out of the room and at other times to need more help and information than one can possibly give. It is nerve-trying to see children moving and hear them talking unless one sees the necessity for it, and then it becomes equally irksome to see them sitting docile and dumb.

We discovered that it was impossible to begin to work out the project method with anything other than a free environment. It is only when the child is free to choose his occupation that one can be aware of his real interests. It is no use having a carefully prepared scheme for a group model and coercing or cajoling the children into doing the necessary handwork or taking a spurious interest in the correlated scheme. The suggestions for activity must come from the children, and these are usually curiously limited; for their interests follow their instinctive needs and are generally within age ranges. But the starting points of interest vary considerably. We now realize that the children must themselves suggest the plan of work, so we have no elaborate group models, no set time for the duration of the project, no correlation of one subject with another. Instead we have interest in one thing growing out of interest in another, a continuous discovery of knowledge, a continuous project—that of living and learning as we live.

But because children have interests in

Common, we have found that there are certain things they love to do. First, to move about and talk, dance and sing; secondly, to listen to stories and experiment with things; lastly, generally after seven years of age, to read for information and for more stories, and to record calculations. They do not want to write until they have something within themselves to express: they do not want to record their heights and measures and calculations until their collective instinct is at work. Then they start in earnest, do sums and count the sums they have done and hoard them. It is the adult mind, impressing itself upon the child, that demands results at too early an age. The child only wants to be *doing*, to learn what he wants to know, to keep what he has made, perhaps for two or three days, and then a new interest will have been born out of the old and he will start off again.

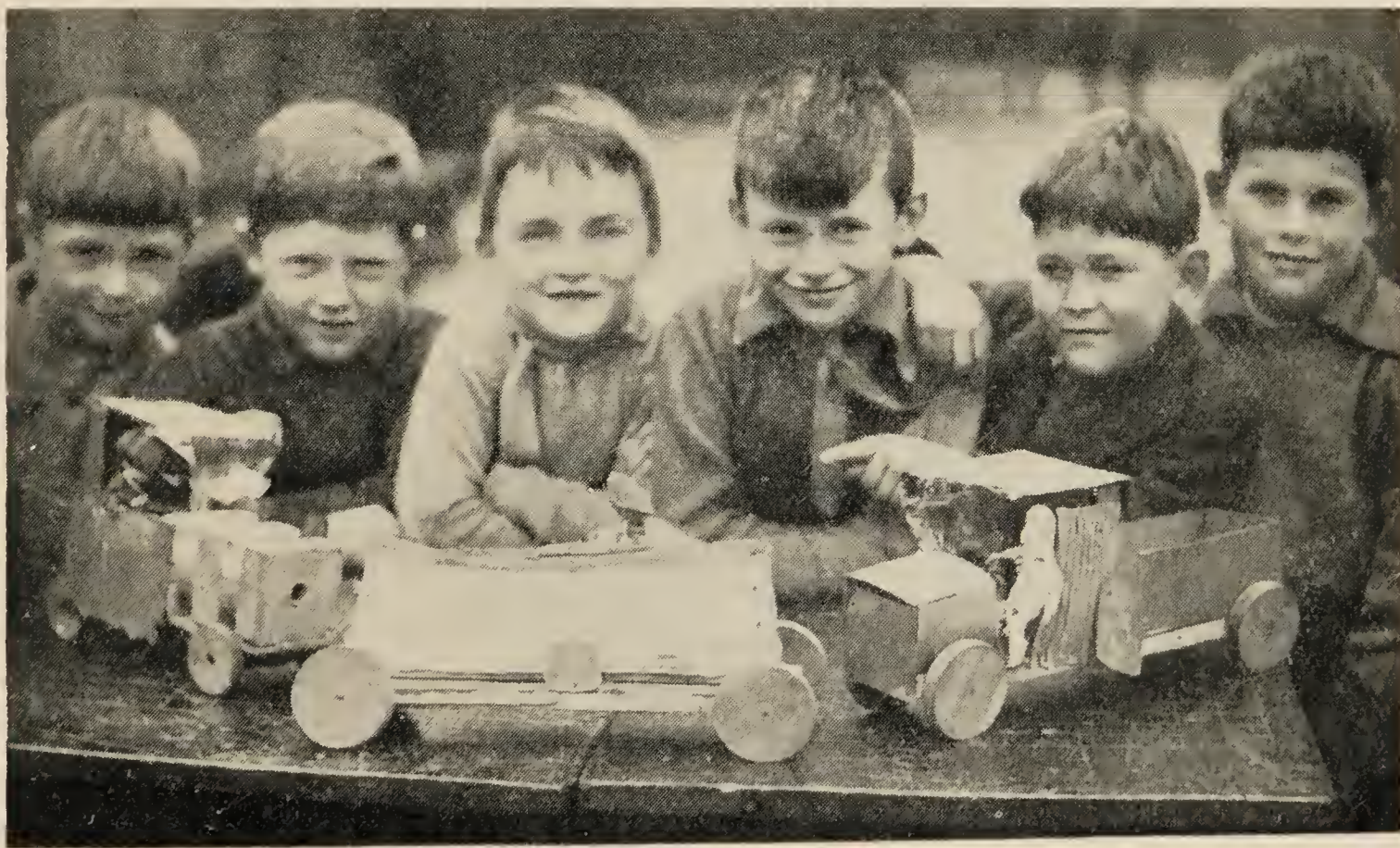
A project is not a static thing. You cannot capture the spirit of it and organize it in a group model and correlation. It is a plan of work, arising out of a spontaneous desire for activity which is in itself progressive and can be made more so with the help of the teacher. But the plan at first is the plan of getting to know, and it must be adaptable, capable of expanding and

contracting, of suffering obliteration as yet another plan emerges, or sufficiently enduring to stand the test of being worked at for a year.

A Building Project

We have found that building answers a real need in children, and so for nearly two years a building project has been in progress. At the beginning of the year the children seem satisfied to build from their own experience, houses, churches, shops, hospitals, schools, aerodromes. Gradually they begin to plan and later compose streets, docks, stations and villages. Towards the summer we find the older children interested in buildings of other lands, and so the teacher in charge of the building room has suitable schemes of work into which they may branch out at any time.

This interest, continued and concentrated in building, has been a surprise to us. Before the children's demand for it we did not realize how they needed it, and now we have more than a quarter of the school choosing to build, out of a possible choice of handwork, reading, writing and number. The type of child who wants to build rarely changes over to handwork. To the child building and handwork are poles apart. And we have found that under free conditions



Children of Much Woolton School with lorries and cars they have built



A group of builders in the yard

the child who builds will let someone else write the records and paint for him. Each child is not necessarily interested in all the points the project may touch, and to insist that he should be spoils the co-operative effect of the whole, and contradicts our intention that the child shall work out his own interests. He may criticize or admire the other work, he will certainly learn from seeing it done, but if his heart lies in building everything else is dim and distant to him for the time being. And so under our conditions where we have workrooms rather than class-rooms, the following project goes on in two rooms or more, and building and hand-work supplement each other.

SCHEME FOR PROJECT ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF BUILDING

Age of children, 7. Number in class, 55.

REASONS for choice of project:—

1. Based on instincts of (a) self-protection.
(b) construction.
(c) self-assertion.
(d) curiosity.
2. Ramifications of study will satisfy
(a) Boys. Building—measuring—life in foreign lands—animals.
(b) Girls. Sewing—painting—decorating and beautifying things made by boys.
3. Local environment can be studied—in process of building.
4. Offers wide field for children to satisfy their individual interests.
5. Can lead to civic interests and consciousness.

AIMS

Social

1. The work and discovery done by each child will be brought together to form
 - (a) a simple book on buildings and
 - (b) models of various types in different lands.
2. This will lead to criticism, based on external and impersonal standards, viz., the child's work fails or stands on its usefulness to the scheme, therefore each child may find some way of gaining recognition.
3. Children will find their own place in the society of others, the leaders will lead and the followers be happy to follow—therefore a better social atmosphere will appear as each child will be satisfying his own natural desires.

Individual

1. It will lead to investigation and satisfying of curiosity.
2. The standard of work will be raised because of criticism of others.
3. Children will learn from each other's work.
4. A habit of thought will arise; to accomplish anything on their own, they must think it out.
5. They will learn the extent of their own powers.
6. Interest in others will be aroused.
7. Self-discipline should follow.

METHODS

1. *Class teaching* will be used when all children desire information on a subject, or when technical difficulties interesting to all arise, or when discussions are necessary.
2. *Individual work* will be encouraged.
3. *Group work* is bound to develop when a common interest arises.

POSSIBLE BEGINNINGS.

1. To work from imagining the world as mere vegetation and animal life to present day conditions.
2. To start with studying buildings of to-day and work backwards.
3. To take types of buildings in various lands.

POSSIBLE STUDIES WHICH WILL ARISE OUT OF WORK

English Reading

1. For information (a) books, (b) keeping records.
2. Reading aloud to inform others.
1. For information.
2. For emotional outlet.
3. For beauty of word painting.

Stories and Poetry

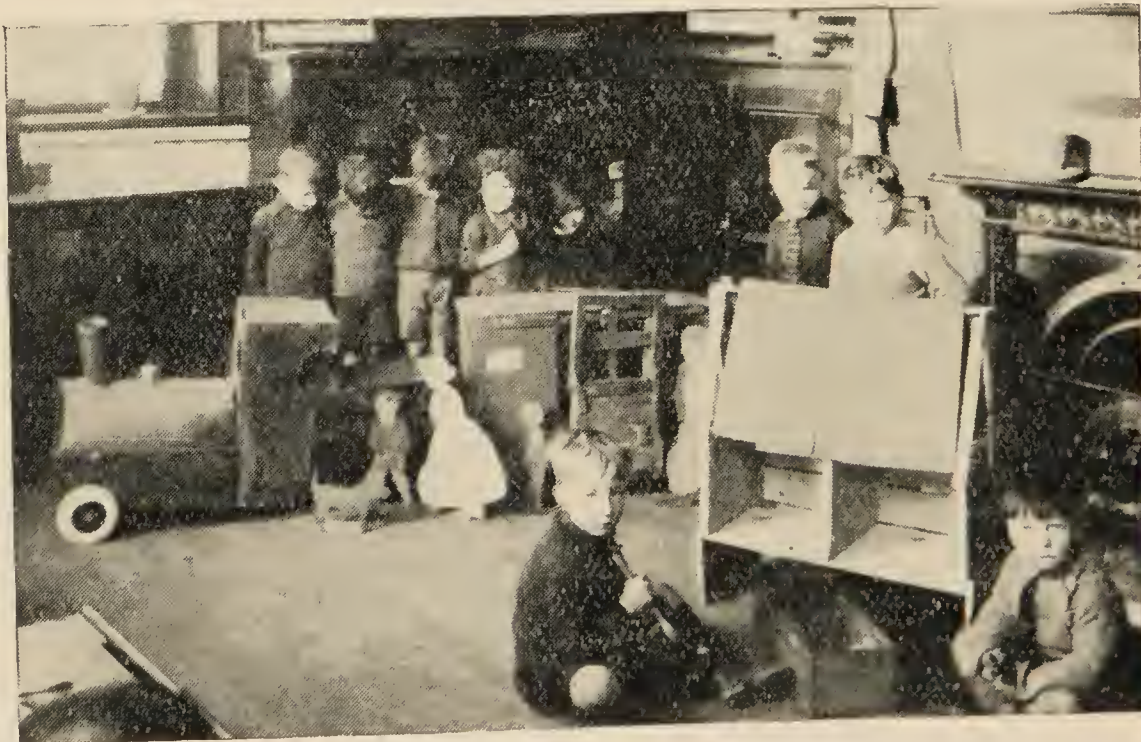
<i>Dramatization</i>	Instinct of self-assertion satisfied, ego widened, sympathies deepened.
<i>Composition</i>	(a) Self-expression. (b) Retailing of information.
<i>Writing</i>	Good printing and writing—records kept, notices made.
<i>Number Measuring</i>	The necessity for a standard measure in length, height, breadth, weights, liquids, etc.
<i>Record Keeping</i>	<i>Time</i> —Years, months and days. <i>Speed.</i> <i>Numbers.</i>
<i>Mechanical Devices</i>	Evolved by man and universally recognized as rules.
Problems	
<i>Money</i>	A mode of exchange.
<i>Proportion</i>	
Construction	(a) Technique and possibilities of material (b) The use of environment for one's own ends.
Aesthetic Development Design	Beautifying of things made. Elements—proportion, relation, repetition, symmetry, contrast, harmony and rhythm.
Nature	Study of design and evolution of nature, laws of life, growth, conditions.
Geography History Music	Conditions and life in other lands. Study of essential rhythm in all things, the seasons, days, nature, stars, moon, etc., expression of rhythm in man, sleeping, waking, work, play, walking, running (the rhythms in storms and the sea). Rhythm as expressed in verse, prose, painting, sculpture and music. Recognition of 2, 3, and 4 time. Training ear to catch rhythm in all things. Dancing.

A scheme is necessary for the teacher. She must have her work ready to give out, but work will follow along lines of thought suggested by children, always keeping in mind the essential 'realness' of their search for knowledge, and

the wonders they may discover about themselves and others, a reverence for what has come about, and a belief that they themselves can add to what has already been evolved.

The following conversations and remarks are extracts from a record of work kept while the project was in progress. They illustrate the strange way in which children's minds wander around a subject, or, again, may spring to the understanding of a vital point.

1. After my telling the children something of prehistoric conditions in the world Bertie said, 'I wonder if the world would be very quiet'.
2. During a measuring lesson Arthur asked, 'What d'you call that line from corner to corner in a square with a thing like a band triangle on each side?'
3. Roy said, 'We will not be alive when the men have grown quite clever, knowing all things'. Geoffrey suggested, 'Children yet unborn will know more than us'. Roy wanted to know 'where all the men who have ever lived have gone'. Nobody answered. Later he solved his own difficulty by saying '. . . well, they're dead in heaven, not in England'.
4. Bertie says he knows why the people long ago thought the sun was God, because it looks like a face out of heaven.
5. When one of the children was told his work was not as good as that done by a prehistoric man he said, 'Well, that's not fair. They had all day to do it in; we've lots to learn besides; and look, there's Arthur collecting the scissors'.
6. 'Why need we do sums? Wild men didn't and they managed all right.'
7. Edwin wanted to know how the first grass and first trees began, because seeds came out of grass and off trees, so how did the first one start?



Building a railway at Much Woolton School

He was mostly talking to himself and did not expect me to reply, for later he said 'It must have been God, nothing else could do it'.

Even these few examples will show that the children were thinking and wondering and expressing their thoughts. As a group they were friendly social beings all using their individual efforts in the solving of age-old problems. They thought, talked, and worked with their hands, but they did not want to express their thoughts in writing, or to work at number. The fault lay not in them, but in the type of project. Reading was done willingly if they could read about the olden days, number was of no interest unless they were weighing and measuring, and so, according to the demands laid down by Junior Schools, who expect children to read, write and calculate before they have seen the need for such technique, the project was a failure. But from the point of view of those who realize a child must think and talk before he can

read and write sincerely, that is with a purpose in his reading and writing; from the point of view of those who know that if a child's curiosity, wonder and initiative are aroused there is no holding his progress, then the project was a success.

Later an Infants' School of five classes was run entirely on Projects. The plan for the whole school was that of a village. Standard 1 ran a post office; 6 and 6+ children a market; 5+ children a farm, and the babies' class a house. This ran for three months, and because the whole staff entered into the spirit of the experiment as well as the children, a constructive, critical spirit arose. We were not satisfied; it was a period of thought and discussion. Having gone so far, we would not go back, but felt we must go further still, and that necessitated a whole rearrangement of existing time-tables and classes.

To be continued.

'Building An A1 Nation'

A Modern Physical Education Film*

THERE has been of recent years a great revival of interest in physical activities of all kinds, which has manifested itself in the enthusiasm now shown over the great international sporting events. In other and more important ways it is also showing itself: 'Keep Fit' classes are spreading, swimming pools are becoming increasingly popular, playing fields can nowhere meet the excessive demands for them. The question of physical fitness being so much to the fore, it would seem the right moment for showing the public the modern developments in physical education practised in England, the kind of work which is being done to improve and maintain the health of the nation.

With this object in view and to emphasize the importance of action as opposed to mere on-looking, a silent film entitled 'Building an A1 Nation' has been produced by the Ling Association of Teachers of Swedish Gymnastics. In it are shown many branches of modern physical work, including organized games, swimming and gymnastic lessons typical of work in Secondary and Elementary schools, in Training Colleges, Evening Institutes and Factories. Those who remember the 'physical drill' of former days will be amazed at the change which has been brought about in this branch of education in recent years. Rhythmic movements have taken the place of the old jerky type of exercise, and the stiff

military bearing has been replaced by a more natural easy poise.

The work of the women's physical training colleges is a special feature of the film, for in the hands of trained gymnastic teachers lies the responsibility of much of the physical education of the rising generation. And men in a physical training Institute in the East end of London (an Institute which is doing work of inestimable value in training leaders for boys' clubs) demonstrate boxing and Jiu Jitsu with vigour. Well laid out playing fields provide food for thought, and it is to be hoped that Borough Councillors who see the film may remember it when next they criticize town-planning schemes.

Simple daily exercises are demonstrated, and should appeal to many who have resigned themselves unnecessarily to a life of sub-normal physical power and consequently suffer from the minor but depressing ailments of a poorly functioning body. The film should draw the attention of those who look upon chilblains, colds, coughs and headaches as the normal lot of man, to the simple and effective remedy which lies to their hand.

* This film, which takes fifty minutes to show, is available at very moderate rates in both standard and cine kodak sizes. All particulars can be obtained from the Secretary, The Ling Association, 10 Mecklenburgh Square, London, W.C.1.

International Notes

FELLOWSHIP NEWS

London Headquarters

World Fellows, their friends and enquirers, meet at tea on Fridays at 5 p.m. at 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1. Here is an extract from the letter of an Indian World Fellow who spent several months in London last summer and has now returned to India.

'I could not realize, when in London, that separation from the *Fellowship* would be so painful to me. I had the best of my time with you. The Friday teas, when I enjoyed conversation with *Fellowship* members, were really happy and interesting. I derived immense benefit from the friendly talk and discussion. But now being cut off from the *Fellowship* by 3,000 miles of land and sea I am utterly helpless. . . . The kind of work which you have taken in hand really helps to pave the way of friendship between nation and nation. . . .'

For particulars of World Fellowship membership write to the *New Education Fellowship* at the address given above.

Glasgow

The Glasgow Centre of the *New Education Fellowship* held a very successful At Home at the Mile End Nursery School, 146, Orr Street, Glasgow, on 10th September, when Professor R. T. Fynne, of Trinity College, Dublin, was present.

OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

Home and School Council

We very much regret that owing to a misunderstanding we should have stated in our last issue that the St. Christopher's Nursery Training College and Children's Home had been taken over and re-organized by the *Home and School Council*. This is not the case; the College has in fact been taken over by Miss M. A. Payne and is run under the auspices of the *Council*.

Films for Schools

We are very glad to learn that the *Empire Marketing Board's* library of seven hundred films will, for the present at least, be under the control of the Post Office, and the films will continue to be available for schools.

In this connection, teachers may be glad to know of the films made by the Cunard Line. No charge is made for the loan of films which are forwarded by carriage paid one way. The titles include *Sailing the Seven Seas*, the *Carinthia World Cruise, 1931*, *New York the Wonder City*, *West Indies Cruise*. Further particulars may be obtained from *The New Era* or from the Cunard Line, London, Southampton or Liverpool.

The Progressive College for Women, Céligny

Parents and teachers will be interested to know that owing to certain changes which have been made

the fees for students at this College have been substantially reduced, and special financial arrangements will be made for students coming from other European countries. The cost for board and tuition for English students will be adjusted individually and will approximately be the equivalent of \$1,000.00. Full particulars may be obtained from the Director of the College, Céligny (Geneva), Switzerland.

Maarten-Maartens House

The first holiday season of the international school hostel established at Maarten-Maartens House, Doorn, was a complete success. Many of the visiting school children came from England. Similar holiday arrangements can be made for the winter.

Lectures

The *Parent Teacher Association* and the *Child Guidance Association*, of which Dr. William Boyd is President, is entering upon its second year, and has an extremely interesting programme. Until the end of this year, the topics discussed will concern the 'Emotional Crisis in Childhood and Youth', and in the Spring, the subject will be 'Some things Parents want to know about School'. Each of the five subjects which come under these headings will be dealt with by an expert, and group discussions will follow a week later.

Parents and teachers will be interested in the course of eight lectures on 'The Mind of the Child,' arranged by the *Institute of Child Psychology*, 20, Warwick Crescent, London, W.2, to be given at the Friends' House, Euston Road, during November. The lecturers include Dr. Margaret Lowenfeld, Dr. Doris Odlum, and Mr. E. J. Radclyffe, M.A. Application for tickets and further details should be made to the Lecture Secretary at the Institute.

Corporal Punishment

We learn with interest that Dr. William Boyd's new book, *America in School and College*, has provoked a great deal of discussion on this subject. His reference to the barbarous tradition of corporal punishment in Scotland led to an article in the *Glasgow Herald* and was followed by numbers of letters, showing that though the tradition is still strongly entrenched, there is a growing body of opinion hostile to it. On the whole the views expressed by parents have been very much against it.

The Regent Institute

Teachers and others with journalistic leanings will be interested in the Regent Institute leaflet inserted in the last issue. As in any other course, particularly a postal course, the amount of benefit obtained depends entirely on the amount of work put in by the pupil; but the Institute certainly provides good discipline for a would-be writer and will either develop latent talent or prove its absence.

NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF GREAT BRITAIN

During this month an urgent appeal has gone out to members of the Nursery School Association. This Association, like most others at the present time, is suffering from the results of economic depression. But that does not mean that our activities must be curtailed. The greater the depression, the more obvious does the need for Nursery Schools become and the more there is for us to do.

Clearing and rebuilding of slums offers an opening that we cannot afford to miss. In some cities, in Vienna for example, the rehousing of working class populations has been accompanied by the provision of Nursery Schools adequate to all the needs of the districts. We know that at present the obstacles in the way of starting Nursery Schools here are very great, but we are justified in looking ahead to more prosperous times. It is up to us now to see that sites for Nursery Schools of the future are reserved. The rebuilding of the slums affords the opportunity.

Finding the suitable site is an old, old story. Those who have worked at the Nursery School Association's Office know it almost by heart. 'Yes', it is said, 'we are going well ahead with our plans. The mothers are very keen . . . local enthusiasm is very high . . . there are one or two very keen supporters . . . no

names, of course . . . but the financial position should be all right. The trouble is the site. There is a piece of land we have thought of, but it is a long way from the homes. The children would have to go by bus and that is tiring and expensive. There is a little piece of land between the gasworks and a factory but . . . ' and so on and so on.

This has happened so often. It is likely to happen with increasing frequency if planning and building take place with no thought to the future. If satisfactory sites are to be had for new schools, they must be reserved now. Members are asked to use whatever influence they have to press for the reservation of Nursery School sites in the present re-housing plans. And they are asked to do more: to procure financial support and an increased membership of the Association and so make it possible for us to carry our work into wider fields.

The Winter Conference of the Nursery School Association will be held in connection with the Conference of Educational Associations at University College, Gower Street, W.C.1, on Friday, January 5th, 1934. An opening meeting will be held in the morning when a lecture will be given by Dr. Graham Howe, and the members' meeting will be held in the afternoon of the same day.

Book Reviews

Social Development in Young Children. Susan Isaacs. (Routledge. 15s.)

In 1930 Mrs. Isaacs published in *Intellectual Growth in Young Children* those records of her pupils' behaviour at the Malting House School, Cambridge, which illustrate the growth of intellectual processes, together with her interpretation of the material. The expectations aroused by the first volume have been more than fulfilled in its sequel, which presents her records of the beginnings of social adaptation among the same children and discusses their significance, especially in the light of psycho-analytic theory. As Mrs. Isaacs frequently points out, this division of her material into separate volumes is due solely to considerations of convenience in publishing the records. The reader of *Social Development in Young Children* should be acquainted at least with the account in her first volume of the educational practice at the Malting House School, where an attempt was made to provide the fullest opportunities for the children's active interests and creative play during the three years of its existence. Conversely, the description of the intellectual processes and interests of this group of highly intelligent young children is illuminated by the account of their social relations. The two volumes are thus complementary and should be studied together.

The first section of the book gives the records of the children's social behaviour and this is followed by Mrs. Isaacs' interpretative theory of early social development. This arrangement seems the most

satisfactory and logical and is a welcome reversal of that in her previous book. It is characteristic of Mrs. Isaacs' genetic standpoint that her classification of the records never blinds her to the relations that may exist between different sections. For example, in interpreting records of behaviour separately classified under Motives of Possession, Power and Rivalry, she shows how a sense of property in young children can be understood more completely by considering its relation to their rivalries and their desire for power.

The records of behaviour are sub-divided into two sections giving in the first examples of ego-centrism, individual and group aggression, friendliness and co-operation, and in the second examples of sexuality, guilt and shame. It is significant that the first section is headed 'Love and Hate in Action' and the second 'The Deeper Sources of Love and Hate'. In Mrs. Isaacs' opinion the first section can be fully interpreted only in the psycho-analytic terms of the second. Her observations and theories of child development confirm the discoveries of Freud and stress the view that later social reactions are founded on the sexual development and unconscious impulses and conflicts of infancy and early childhood. Though these aspects of the inner growth of the child are emphasized, the importance of environment is not ignored. We are reminded that 'the behaviour of the children in the nursery group can be vitally linked, point by point, with the family situation'.

Mrs. Isaacs several times acknowledges her debt

o Melanie Klein and M. N. Searl, whose recent work on the psycho-analysis of children has influenced her theory of early sexual and social development. The exposition of these theories is most lucid and there is an especially interesting account of the early formation of the super-ego. Mrs. Isaacs suggests that in its original form the super-ego is based more upon the child's own primitive aggressive impulses than on the actual behaviour of its parents and that it is from these impulses, aroused by the unavoidable frustrations that infants experience, that a child's sense of guilt originates, and not from vetoes and restraints at a later age. In fact Mrs. Isaacs contends that young children need to be safeguarded against their own aggressive impulses by the authority of an adult whose kindly and just firmness is a reassuring contrast to the primitive, vengeful super-ego of the child.

This brief and inadequate account may at least indicate the importance of Mrs. Isaacs' contentions. Her description of the findings of recent analytical work among children and its bearings on educational thought and practice is most timely. It should be read and pondered on by those extremists among parents and teachers who confound license with freedom, and mistake external restraint for internal repression. If they cannot study closely the actual records and their interpretation, they should at least turn to the second part of the book, for it is in these last fifty pages that the relation between psycho-analysis and education is discussed. A clear distinction is here drawn between the technique of psycho-analysis and education on the one hand and the bearings upon educational aims and practice of the facts revealed by psycho-analysis on the other. The distinct and fundamental differences between the work of the educator and the analyst are described and it is shown why one person cannot perform both these functions for the same child. Mrs. Isaacs then shows how psycho-analytic findings confirm the value of spontaneous activities, of play both imaginative and constructional, of the early companionship of other children and of freedom in artistic efforts—values already recognized in the best modern educational practice. But she emphasizes also how the child needs the help of external restraints in turning to control and deflect his own aggressive impulses.

Though the book as a whole is rightly addressed to the scientific public, 'to serious students of psychology and education', I would like to see the second part reprinted separately and thus made more accessible to the growing number of parents and teachers who claim to possess a knowledge of 'the new psychology'. Mrs. Isaacs' exposition of the educational problem is as salutary as it is lucid.

P. C. Shapiro

The Psychology of Infancy. Victoria Hazlitt.
(Methuen & Co., Ltd. 5s.)

The author treats infancy as one might a class-room subject to be set out clearly under headings and sub-headings, neatly classified and disposed of. This is probably not the impression that was intended; but

the brevity of statement that omits all discussion does produce this effect on any intelligent mind. The infant here is considered as an abstract conception with no environment, and the actual order of its development is reversed. The author omits to deal with the emotional life of the infant till the last few pages of her book and fills the rest with chronologically ordered statements about the child's physical and intellectual achievements. No infant begins life intellectually and emotion must be the main subject matter of any book on infant psychology, nor can any infancy be understood if the emotional significance of the parental environment is not fully dealt with. It is very interesting how often books about the infant deal with the child as though the change of topic really were of no significance.

As a concise handbook to the average rate of development of function and intelligence in children this book may have its uses; but it is not a psychology of infancy.

Jane I. Suttie

Annuaire International de l'Education et de l'Enseignement, 1933. (Bureau International d'Education, Geneva. 12 frs. suisses.)

This annual contains the official statistics concerning education for 1931-1932 of 35 different countries, together with a short official account from a number of them dealing with movements in education during that period.

We owe this documentation to the efforts of the International Bureau of Education at Geneva. We must congratulate the Bureau on thus adding to its great services in collecting reliable information concerning education in different parts of the world. The work of such a private centre of information will continue to be invaluable until the countries of the world make up their minds to take seriously the international organization they have set up at Geneva, and realize that education has quite as important an effect as armaments on international relations. Perhaps the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation will then be adequately supported and will be able to supply trustworthy official information such as this. Meanwhile unofficial organizations must fill the gap as best they can.

Perhaps it would be as well to point out, however, that official information is not necessarily complete information and often needs careful interpretation if it is to convey a correct impression. The statistics given on page 208 concerning England and Wales, for instance, are misleading. The budget for education is given as £47,000,000 odd. But this excludes the amount paid out by Local Authorities, and the total for the budget estimates for 1933 was £81,840,000. There is also no reference to non-grant-aided private and endowed schools which are an essential part of the English system. This perhaps was inevitable since these schools do not come under the control of the Board of Education. Yet they contain 400,000 pupils, and England, though not the public authorities, probably spends quite £25,000,000 a year on their upkeep.

Wyatt Rawson

Unemployment and the Child. Save the Children Fund. (Longmans Green. 2s. 6d.)

This little book reports the result of a painstaking inquiry by the Save the Children Union of Geneva into the effects of unemployment on the children of this country.

In some respects the result is reassuring, for it appears that up to the present there is little, if any, deterioration in the nutrition or health of the children at State schools, though a minority certainly do not get enough to eat and the majority can hardly be properly fed.

It is difficult to understand from the family budgets detailed in the appendix how it is possible for a man, wife and three young children to support life on an unemployment benefit of £1. 9s. 3d. a week.

According to the dietary worked out by Professor Bowley's Committee for the *Week-End Review*, the meals for this family would cost 21s. leaving 8s. 3d. to cover the rent, clothes and all other expenses.

Fortunately some Education Authorities give very necessary assistance by providing milk or meals to the children of poorer parents. This practice the Report suggests should be extended.

But the outlook is disquieting. More radical measures will have to be adopted in the near future to solve the difficulties of employment presented by increasing numbers (owing to the high birth rate immediately after the War) of adolescents coming on to the labour market, and further efforts will have to be made to maintain the morale and provide useful occupation for the large number of men and women for whom there will never be permanent work.

For children under school age, the most critical period of their life, the Report rightly stresses the urgent need for many more Maternity and Child Welfare centres.

J. W. White

Living with Our Children. Jeanie P. Slight. (Grant Educational Co. 3s. 6d.)

This book tells how a teacher in an American elementary school helped to give twenty-five young children opportunities to learn by living, before they reached the usual age for formal education. The ordinary dreary small classroom, with its high windows and rows of tables and chairs, was carefully adapted, so that the children might have as much freedom as possible for natural play. Miss Slight shows how, by constantly watching the growth of interest and providing the necessary materials and suggestions at the right time, she was able to lead her class to the desire for knowledge, which is the first step towards learning.

The value of the book lies in its practical sincerity. *Living with Our Children* is the product of the first-hand experience of someone who has actually 'lived with children', and it is most refreshing to find the Project Method, which has been so much talked about and mishandled by theoretical educationalists, put into its place by a practical teacher. Here the 'Project' is subordinate to the children's needs, and it is the children themselves who are interesting rather than the 'Project'.

Janet Jewson

A Headmaster Remembers. Guy Kendall. (Gollancz. 8s. 6d.)

Schoolmasters All or Thirty Years Hard. Bernard Henderson. (Constable. 7s. 6d.)

Mr. Kendall is Headmaster of a famous school. Mr. Henderson, though he appears to have had many tries, failed to attain his ambition of becoming a Headmaster and it has left him disgruntled with the scholastic profession. His book is at times amusing, often distinguished by insight, but it is disfigured throughout by that cantankerous bitterness to which a certain type of schoolmaster is particularly prone. He seems to think that all Governors are idiots, most if not all Inspectors interfering incompetents create to worry hardworking teachers, most Headmasters little Jacks-in-Office who never ought to have been given their position of authority. Such jibes are easy. Perhaps Mr. Henderson's course did not lie in pleasant places. Nevertheless in spite of all his grouses he appears to have enjoyed his 'thirty years hard.'

Mr. Kendall has had a more interested and pleasant career. Eton, Oxford, Settlement work in Manchester, a term at a thoroughly bad school concealed under the name of 'Thresham', then Charterhouse and finally the Headmastership of University College School. Perhaps the two most interesting chapters in his book are those entitled 'Problems of a Day School' and 'Final Reflections'. One would like to quote, but there is no space. These chapters show what is not always realized—that English public schools have cautiously adopted many of the ideas of the 'New' Education, and that public school headmasters are not so reactionary as they are sometimes painted.

Line Drawing for Reproduction. Ashley. **Modelling and Sculpture.** Sargeant Jagger. (The Studio. 7s. 6d. each.)

These attractive books give the student really valuable and practical information. The beginner will be surprised to find how many mechanical aids are used in line drawing and how much preliminary work has to be done before a sculptor's working model can be set up. Both books are divided into two parts—an explanation of the technique of the art and an analysis of a number of successful examples. The excellent reproductions of modern work in line and the photographs of sculpture of all periods are alike remarkable.

Plays for the Tinies. Edited by Constance Sturmer. (The Fourth Book of School Plays, published by Evans Brothers. 2s. 6d.)

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Our Contributors

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

We are very glad to throw open the editorial columns of THE NEW ERA to a number of eminent educationists who have kindly consented to contribute the leading articles during the coming months. DR. WILLIAM BOYD now contributes an editorial on 'Parent Education'.

ONE of the daily newspapers entertains its readers with humorous sketches about 'Bringing Up Father'. The idea that Father needs bringing up and that his children have an important part to play in the process is still so foreign to the ordinary newspaper reader as to be a good joke. Actually it is a very old kind of joke. No doubt many of the people who heard Jesus talk found it funny to be told that the meek would inherit the earth and that children were nearer heaven than grown-up men. Such inversions of values always sound strange when they are first propounded and some of them keep on sounding strange.

Bringing Up Parents The joke about the bringing up of Father, however, is on the way to losing its point with the spread of parents' education. It is not yet a matter of course that fathers and mothers need education. But the idea is steadily gaining ground. It is already approaching the commonplace on the other side of the Atlantic where universities take child welfare seriously and provision for instruction in the business of parenthood is widespread. Even in this country, where new things take longer to break down old barriers of prejudice and ignorance, home and school councils, parent-teacher associations, child guidance organizations, are beginning to take up the task of helping parents to fit themselves for the greatest job on earth.

Parent education has always been one of the dreams of the educational idealists, but as a working proposition it is the product of our

own century. The nineteenth century has been called the century of the child, and of elementary education. Educationally speaking, the twentieth century is everybody's century. Our age has been trying to give reality to the old time platitude that education begins with the first cry and ends with the last sigh. It is becoming obvious that every important human function calls for special training. Having learned to read, we have followed up with the discovery that somewhere in print information is to be got on any subject that concerns us. More significant still, out of our school learning, some of us have developed a desire to know how anything we have to do can best be done. That is one of the main springs of the growing interest in the bringing up of children.

The New Technique of Child Management From the point of view of these educational idealists it is not perhaps the best way of approach to parental education. It is apt to encourage the wrong attitude of grown-ups to the rising generation by fostering the sense of superiority which has always characterized the parent-child relationship. It suggests the ideal of efficiency, of scientific management, which is proper in reference to things, but deadly dangerous in reference to persons.

But need there be such evil effects? That depends altogether on the character of the education parents acquire or receive. There has been a great accession of new knowledge about human nature and behaviour, which has proved of the utmost value to all who have to

deal with either normal or abnormal children. From Binet and the mighty army of measurers have come tests of intelligence and achievement which bring definiteness into the study of children. From McDougall and the analysts has come new insight into the motivations of conduct through a new psychology of instincts and impulsions. From the child guidance experts have come new techniques for the management of children in home and school at the different periods of life. Here ready to hand for the inquiring parents is the knowledge they need for their task. Like all knowledge it is an instrument to be used. Like all instruments it can be used ill or well.

*The New Knowledge—
How to Use It*

Theoretically, at least, it might be used to increase the dominance of a parent who was bent on fashioning the child after his or her pattern. For instance, new methods of teaching have sprung up in recent years to enable education to be individualized in the interests of freedom, but in many cases the effect of the new method has been to get more work out of the children, and so increase the power of the adult. No method can be guaranteed against such distortion. The same is true of any kind of knowledge.

At the same time, one hastens to add, the chances of real misuse are not very great. For one thing, the kind of parent who wants to know better how to bring up children gives proof of some measure of humility in his or her desire. The parent likely to be superior in dealing with children is generally too superior to be conscious of ignorance. Such a parent is not going to admit personal shortcoming even when problems accumulate. For another thing, the instruction commonly given in regard to competent parenthood is never merely a matter of knowledge or technique. It is concerned

fundamentally with attitudes. Get a company of parents on to the discussion of any serious problem in child behaviour, and inevitably the question of right relations between parents and children arises. Whether the parent likes it or not, any serious attempt at understanding how things have gone wrong with a child is going to make the parent wonder what he or she has done wrong. Not many who have taken part in such discussion or questioning have escaped hearing at some time or other the still, small voice: 'Thou art the man'.

In fact, people may start with only the ideal of competence, imagining that the business in hand is the good upbringing of their children. Sooner or later if they are honest with themselves they will discover that before they can hope to succeed in educating the young folks they must educate themselves. If they are astute enough to know what is happening, indeed, they will discover that the children have, as the humorists tell them, been bringing them up! With greater astuteness, good instruction added to common sense and experience will hurry on the process of self-education and reduce the chances of conflict between opinionated age and wilful youth to the advantage of both.

It is at this point, with the realization that in education there are ultimately no superior and no inferior, but just more experienced and less experienced, people interacting and being changed by the interaction, that parent education comes into the great stream of the new education. The new education has its fundamental basis in respect for human personality whether old or young, and in the establishment of right relations between old persons and young. Satisfactory training for parenthood, which is the precedent condition for any satisfactory education anywhere, can only take place on these terms.

The 1933 Index (Volume 14) is now ready and will be sent on application, free of charge, on receipt of a stamped addressed envelope.

The Reorganization of Girls' Schools in Austria

MARIA MARESCH

DURING the last decades continual efforts have been made to control and harness the forces of nature so that mankind may be assured a better standard of living. Nevertheless, it would appear that in spite of superficially improved standards and the great advances in technology, the life of the individual and the family has become much more difficult than before. New problems have appeared or have been realized for the first time by the mass of the population. The burden of rearing children seems more oppressive now that healthy living and adequate education is demanded. Owing to the impoverishment of Austrian economic life during and since the war, and the fearful unemployment resulting from this, the situation which faces the young people of to-day can only be borne if an entirely new outlook is given them.

The Housewife and the National Income

The amelioration of economic distress through increase of production and exportation must be the constant aim of our economists; but it would be a mistake to expect an improvement solely from these external sources. The efforts of technicians to discover new forces which can be controlled for the service of man must be paralleled by our own efforts to discover and develop new forces and new possibilities in man himself. If we start this research we come upon the curious fact that quite obvious possibilities have been overlooked. Economists have tried to increase the income of the population, but no attention has



Photo]

[Gebrüder Knozer, Wien, IV
Dr. Maria Maresch

been paid to the best way of utilizing that income—the best way, that is, of living.

For several decades past, much has been done to improve vocational training in specialized branches of industry; but it is only during the last ten years that interest has been shown in the preparation of the young for the difficulties of the everyday life of an ordinary citizen. Hitherto everything was left to common-sense, which was frequently inadequate. It is our task to-day to prevent the loss of human values so entailed, and the means to this end is to be found in the

proper 'preparation for life' of the youth of our country. Particularly must we train our girls; for girls are not only responsible for their own lives, but for the lives of the coming generations. Later, as housewives and mothers, they will administer sixty to eighty per cent of the national income, in addition to looking after the children of the nation. If we can teach these girls a higher standard of living and in so doing reduce the quota of waste in the home, then we shall have increased the national income, raised the standard of living and improved popular morality.

Training the Housewives of the Future

To achieve this end, girls must be taught what are the necessities of life, and how best to obtain these with the material at their disposal. As school attendance among the Austrian working classes is only compulsory for eight years, this 'preparation for life', which includes the study of domestic economy, must

be begun in the top classes of the elementary schools. It should be the central aim of all instruction and should have as its point of departure the teaching of the least significant processes in home and school life.

This necessitates a series of new arrangements, the importance of which was emphasised in the last century by Professor Kerschensteiner in Munich; but to expect success by the mere addition of these new developments, school kitchens for girls, workshops for boys, playgrounds for both, would be a great mistake. It is only by co-ordinating all subjects of study that success is made possible. The immense complexity of our present mode of life, its all but insuperable difficulty, places the adolescent as well as the adult in a state of helplessness which has been the cause of so many of the suicides amongst adolescents in recent years. The counter influence of education can only be secured if the school makes an effort to direct the child's thoughts to life as a whole. The necessities of existence must be strictly differentiated from purely cultural advantages,

and still more from luxuries, and the adolescent must be trained to create a scale of values for himself. By proper instruction in nutrition, clothing and housing, the young girl can be taught how best to obtain these necessities of life, so that when she leaves school and has to shape her own course of action, her decisions will be based on an entirely new set of values. If we have taught her to make the most of life as it is, by looking ahead and planning carefully, then we have eliminated one of the main causes of economic waste. While the home, which is the source of national health and morality, is in danger of destruction, it is useless to try to improve the national welfare. It is only by training women to overcome with love and vision the increasing difficulties of modern life that the home will be recreated and the nation's life newly equipped.

The Schools and Domestic Economy

An attempt has been made to achieve these ends by the reorganization of the girls' schools in Austria, but owing to economic depression the reforms have not been carried out in every



Learning the Theory of Domestic Science

school. First of all, teachers had to be trained to instruct the young in this 'preparation for life', and as they could not be given leave of absence from their schools in term time, the summer holidays had to be used for the organization of continuation courses in domestic economy. These courses have been held every summer since 1923, and have been attended by an average of four hundred teachers per year. In Vienna, courses have also been held during the term for teachers in the neighbourhood. For teachers in secondary schools, and students at the University, an Institute of Domestic Economy has been established which affords facilities for training in the teaching of this subject. In 1921 a new type of girls' secondary school was established by the Frauenoberschule, and here the domestic economy instruction is closely allied to the scientific instruction. This school, in addition to regular subjects (which have been reduced by the exclusion of one language only) includes domestic economy, child management, pedagogy and needlework. At the other upper second-



ary schools, domestic economy is introduced as an optional subject, and this is also the case at Teachers' Training Colleges. Nothing yet has been done, however, to secure the closer association of domestic economy with the other branches of the curriculum.

In connection with the elementary and central schools of Austria about four hundred school kitchens have been established since 1903, in which instruction is given to the older children. The curriculum of the central schools is planned so as to promote this study of domestic econ-

omy. In some districts continuation schools for ex-primary pupils are compulsory, in most of the federal provinces they are optional; but their activity has increased yearly. These schools should be attended from the fourteenth to the seventeenth year, and they are regarded as the best means of preparing girls to meet the demands of life. The present economic depression is preventing further development in the girls' schools; but the women teachers, with self-sacrificing zeal, have set themselves to advocate reform.



Cookery Lessons

The Classics, History and the Complete Citizen

WYATT RAWSON

Dr. Rouse has done as much as any man to revitalize the teaching of the classics in England, and the reasons he gives in the last number of the 'New Era' for applying the Direct Method to the teaching of Latin and Greek have the added cogency of his own success with them at the Perse School, Cambridge. In the last paragraph of his article, however, he refers to the vexed question of the value of classical education and declares himself its devoted supporter. The following article is written to put the point of view of those who having gone through that training and realized some of its strength yet do not agree with him on the larger issue. For them one of the chief needs of the secondary schools and universities of to-day is the creation of a new type of Modern Humanities course which shall have both the breadth and depth of the old classical training and which shall nevertheless be in direct contact with the world of to-day.

IN mediæval and renaissance Europe no education was considered complete which did not include the ability to read, write and speak Latin. The advocates of the New Learning even required a knowledge of Greek as well. To-day the ordinary well-educated man neither speaks nor writes Latin, and many would declare an education reasonably complete even if its recipient knew no word of Greek and had forgotten how to construe the simplest Latin sentence. How and why has this change come about?

Mediæval Culture and the Classics

In mediæval times, and even so late as the seventeenth century, Latin was an indispensable medium of thought for the educated European. It was the one international auxiliary language, and through its door alone could entrance be obtained to the world of science, philosophy and politics. Kepler, Francis Bacon and Spinoza wrote in Latin, while even Milton, defending Cromwell before the bar of continental opinion, used the political language of Europe rather than his own more simple and stately English. Greek, moreover, for the renaissance humanist was not just an ancient language but the key to a vital world of new ideas. Thus both Greek and Latin were once learned because knowledge and culture could not be acquired in any other way. In fact the sixteenth century European who knew no Latin might be compared to the Indian of to-day who knows only Urdu, or a Chinese politician of the Republic who speaks no Western tongue.

But what is the situation now? The world has at least three languages of international discourse, English, French and German, in one of which every scientific or philosophic work of importance is bound to appear. Moreover, the treasures of Greco-Roman thought and imagination have been absorbed into the literatures of all European countries, as well as being available in adequate and sometimes beautiful translations. In truth we may say that no new knowledge is now to be acquired by acquaintance with the languages of the ancient world. Indeed, if we consider only the purposes for which the Elizabethan learnt Latin and Greek, modern man might be well advised to learn English, French and German instead.

The Classics and Modern Life

Why then do the classics still occupy such an honoured place in the universities and secondary schools of Europe? Is it just a case of inertia, of the perpetuation of the letter instead of the spirit of tradition? In France it is said that correct French cannot be written without a knowledge of the Latin language from which it is derived. Yet it may very well be argued, as it was by Henri Wallon at the Nice conference, that thinking and writing in Latin is really a hindrance to correct thought and expression in French, since the unconsciously absorbed social and technical background of the modern child is something so alien from Roman civilization that the Latin language has no words or phrases in which to express it. In England Latin is often defended as a valuable

vehicle of mental training. But no scientific evidence is forthcoming in proof of this: in fact all the experiments that have been conducted to show the transfer of training have but tended to prove that it occurs only between closely related subjects. Thus exercise in Latin genders and cases will of course be an aid to the student of German. But then why not learn German instead of Latin, seeing that it is one of the modern cultural languages of the world? Parsing Latin verbs does not help us to plot a graph, nor does construing a complicated Latin sentence enable us to follow more easily a difficult argument in economics or philosophy.

But have the academic and teaching worlds really been fundamentally deceived as to the value of classical learning? Is there no valid reason for its preservation? As Keyserling has pointed out, there are two types of provincialism, a provincialism of space and a provincialism of time. Our horizon may be bounded by the narrow traditions of one particular class or nation, or it may be limited to the culture and conventions of one particular epoch. A study of the classics is indeed a liberal education in that it is eminently fitted to free us from this second type of provincialism. In the hands of a fine teacher, dealing with boys or girls who have mastered the technical difficulties of the language, a discussion of classical literature soon ceases to be an exercise in literary appreciation and becomes a comparative study of ancient and modern civilizations.

The Humanistic Treatment of History

Nevertheless, this defence of the classics is only valid in a limited degree. It contains no apology for the enormous waste of time and effort of the vast majority of the students who learn Latin in our secondary schools, and to whom Latin remains only a language learnt and not a civilization understood. They would have done much better to have studied the Greco-Roman world directly by means of modern works on the subject and translations of classical authors. A second limitation must be added. The study of ancient society does not, except indirectly, acquaint us with the nature of our own. In the seventeenth century this would not have mattered, since European

society was a comparatively simple organism. But to-day this lack is fundamental. No one can now be called well-educated, or—to use a democratic phrase—a complete citizen, unless he understands in some measure the nature of our present civilization. But only a direct study will enable us to grasp the complications of the international society in which we live to-day.

What attempts are being made at present to introduce this study at university or secondary school level, thus recapturing the spirit of the old humanism while discarding its letter? Perhaps the most outstanding is the experiment undertaken by Dr. Meiklejohn at Wisconsin University, and described in his book, *The Experimental College*, which was reviewed in the *New Era* of last May. It may be remembered that during the first year of life at the College the civilization of Athens was studied as a whole, while during the second a survey of modern civilization was carried out. Another radical experiment is being conducted by Mr. Happold at Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury. It follows the lines of his recent articles in the *New Era*, and will show us something of what can be done at secondary school level.

But these are isolated, one might almost say extreme, experiments. Is there no general movement in this direction?

A New Conception of History Teaching

More and more the teachers of history and geography are coming to conceive of their task in a new way. The old-fashioned history teacher thought of his subject as intellectually an introduction to the past (largely the political past) and morally a training in national citizenship. But to-day a new wind is blowing. It is significant that the recently published English edition of the *International Institute's* volume on the revision of school books includes an appendix recording the discussions concerning the possibility of producing a history book for international use. Again, the two quarterly bulletins that have so far been issued by the *International Conference for the Teaching of History*, upon the contents of which we must most sincerely congratulate the editors, MM.

Isaac and Lapierre, show how much this question of nationalism and internationalism in history teaching is occupying the minds of teachers and historians alike. The second number of the Bulletin is largely concerned with this question. From the discussion it seems clear that if school history is to be more than national it must be expanded into the story of mankind. It then becomes a study of the development of our own civilization—in fact, almost that introduction to the nature of our present society which we believe to be essential to the education of the complete citizen.

It may well be asked, however, whether such a story of mankind can ever be written for any but the adult. The answer is that it has already been in part successfully done. We may mention such English books as Mr. B. A. Howard's *Proper Study of Mankind*, or Miss Helen Corke's series, including the latest addition, *A Book of Modern Peoples*. But we might equally well go outside England. Let us, for instance, take our answer from the recently published *Manual of Belgian History* by L. Verniers and P. Bonenfant. The principles upon which it has been written are excellently set forth in a succinct handbook by M. Verniers himself, entitled *L'Enseignement de L'Histoire*. The history textbook should insert the national biography into the biography of mankind. It should deal with political and racial history, with the story of technical invention and of the economic relations of classes and peoples; and it should include a consideration of the evolution of religious beliefs, scientific knowledge and artistic creation. The whole should be designed to play

a decisive part in the formation of the child's mind. The manual in which these principles have been embodied takes us in 200 pages from the appearance of man upon the earth to the end of the fourteenth century. Although it is called a history of Belgium, only about a tenth of its material is concerned with Belgium itself. It is a brilliant illustration of the new type of history book intended for the last years of elementary school, which is the story of the development of our Western civilization rather than of any national unit. With its numerous illustrations, well chosen selections from contemporary and modern historians, its recommendations ('Go and see . . .', 'Look up in Larousse . . .', 'Make a model of . . .') and its vivid descriptions of the everyday life of other ages, it points the way to a new development of history teaching in the school. We await expectantly the second part which will bring the manual down to the present day, where we hope to see the problem of reconciling national and international history solved as successfully as that of combining economic and political history in the present volume.

If our hopes are fulfilled, we shall possess an excellent example of the humanistic treatment of the school history book, the object of which is to explain to the student the growth and the nature of modern civilization rather than to make of him a history specialist. Thus will arise a new discipline which will take the place of honour held by the classics in the sixteenth century and which by introducing the modern child to a knowledge of the society and culture of his own time will make him free of the city of the world.

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Build and Learn! Part II.

An experiment in self-government

K. DANIELL

EDUCATION is the continual reconstruction of experience, and our teaching based on the Project Method raised new difficulties and consequently necessitated a rearrangement of plan. The following experiment emanated from a feeling on the part of the staff that the children were demanding more knowledge and guidance than we could give them under existing conditions.

The school had been working out Projects on a Home, a Farm, a Market and a Post Office. Enthusiasm had been stimulated but the psychological moment of helping the child was often missed owing to the number of children and the variety of their demands. These demands on the teacher were so great, that there was a danger of the projects being reduced to group models and correlation, and as the essence of the Project Method is that it shall be the child's plan of work, we found we were defeating our own ends.

The noise of the handicrafts was nerve-trying to children who were not partaking in them and a sense of disorder prevailed because too many types of work were being carried on in one room. We also found that however wide-spreading we allowed the interest to be there were always children in the class who were not really interested. From this we realized how individual each child is, and how before we attempt to lead him to co-operation we must allow him to

find his own identity and then guide him to realize the interdependence of himself and others.

Reorganization

We therefore decided to reorganize the school in the following way. It was suggested:—

1. That we should have workrooms rather than classrooms.
2. That a teacher should be in charge of a room and responsible for its apparatus, schemes of work and records.
3. That after the period 9.45 a.m. to 10.30 a.m., when groups were doing physical training and music and were having lunch, children should be free to work in any room they wished.
4. That records of each child's attendance should be kept.
5. That children should be free to move from one room to another provided they left the place ready for the next child.
6. That there should be the following rooms:—
 - a. A room for reading, writing and composition.
 - b. A room for learning how to weigh, measure, buy, sell, and count; for the use of apparatus for mechanical sums and the learning of rules; with one part divided off for a nature corner, where specimens could be brought, kept, named and studied.
 - c. Two rooms for handwork:—

- i. For building and playing with dolls.
- ii. For teaching technique and crafts.

7. That if possible the following rules should suffice:—

- a. That children should walk because there is not room to run.
- b. That anything used should be used carefully and replaced.



Eager builders at work in the yard

Having formulated a plan, we considered it in the light of what we know of psychological and physiological facts, to see if in any way we were violating the health rules of mind and body. It is essential that a child should obtain control over his mind, his body and his environment, and by giving him freedom of movement, choice of occupation and free social intercourse we hope to enable him to do this.

The Child in a Free Environment

To teach a child one must understand him and to understand him one must observe him. By removing the laws and taboos of a set timetable one sees the child as he really is, doing what he chooses to do. Then we can help him to control and sublimate his instinctive reactions to his environment and his fellows.

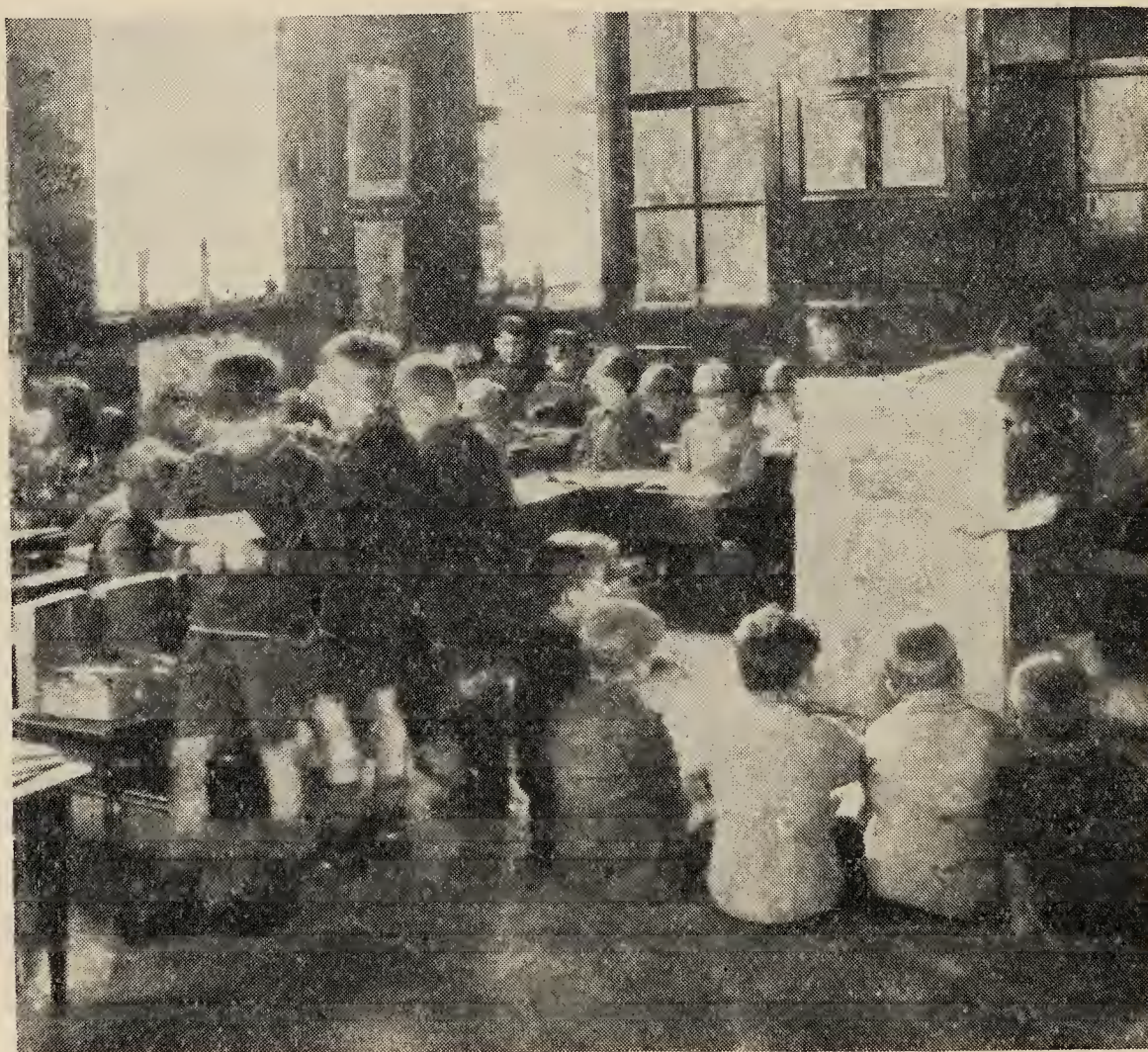
Through the personal experience of 'doing,' the child comes into contact with the laws of living, and learns to accept them with understanding and without the bitterness engendered by the forced acceptance of half-understood knowledge. Through experimenting he discovers for himself the beginning of arts and crafts and sciences. Out of his random experiences he should develop with the help

of the teacher a desire for some sort of systematized knowledge. While he experiments he must of necessity think; for as Dewey says, 'thought is reserved for the new, the precarious, the problematic' and 'foreign subject matter transformed through thinking into a familiar possession, becomes a resource for judging and assimilating additional foreign subject matter'. Having learnt through 'doing', to think critically and constructively, the child must come to that genuine freedom of which the essence is the courage to face facts and to deal with them.

Through contact and intercourse with others, by watching, helping, criticizing and communicating experiences, the child's speech and manner of expressing himself must become more varied and hold more meaning. By facing difficulties and seeking help, the child will give more willing participation in further instruction and guidance.

Because the child is allowed to preserve his individuality, he will have more self-confidence and will safeguard himself mentally and physically by working at his own rate. By allowing the child to be himself, the teacher will create fewer problem children. Happy

*Much Woolton
School,
Infants'
Department*



*Children of
various ages at
work in the
Reading Room*

children are easily led: unhampered by things which do not interest them, they have time to learn how to hear and see and feel for others. Through their enjoyment of music, art and letters they must become more keenly sensitive to and aware of their surroundings, and therefore more sensible and social beings. Through exercising freedom of choice, they will learn to work for work's sake. What they do will be sincere, and they should have a greater regard for truth.

The Experiment in Action

We began our experiment in April, 1932. The first reaction was to be expected: the children flooded the handwork rooms simply because to do handwork all day was novel. Gradually they settled down and gravitated to work in which they were genuinely interested. They soon taught us what was superfluous and what was lacking in the school, and we as well as they had to make adjustments to the new conditions.

To begin with, we had numerous bonfires of useless apparatus which had been needed in the past to sugar the pill of knowledge or to entice the child from *his* interests to what we considered his interests should be. Throughout the school there was a new demand for realness—real sums, real reading, real writing. Crayons were ignored and paint demanded: brick building superseded all other forms of handwork. The children had a free choice and they went straight to all the essential things in the school. It was found necessary to grade and simplify all apparatus. And now, eighteen months after the first grading was done, it has been found necessary in the reading-room to cut out still more of the early apparatus. The children who come to read and write cannot be bothered with tickets and pictures. The sentence method seems to satisfy them until they get to the stage of reading books and writing composition: then they see the need for word-building and spelling and are willing to use apparatus.

From their continued requests for music and stories we realized what a major part these play in a child's life. We ought to have known it from studying racial history; but if we knew it we rarely applied it. We find



The Market Project—a popular stall

children want at least two hours' music a day: this includes eurhythmics, singing, dancing and percussion band. They are always ready for stories and we finish up the afternoon session with a story period apart from others during the day.

A New Way of Learning

In theory one believes quite readily that every child is an individual; but in practice this is very difficult to remember. With the children's new-found freedom came a certain arrogance which has diminished with time, and we find that if we are reasonable and consistent with them, even in large groups they are easy to handle. But if through tiredness or other difficulties we lose our temper with them it is like talking to a brick wall. The group seems to disintegrate and we become powerless. They can co-operate splendidly if they see the necessity for it, and their behaviour when we are short-staffed is excellent. But, as is shown in the handwork rooms, any external pressure from us springing from a purely selfish desire to 'keep things to show',

has so far been resented and successfully routed. That is not their idea of co-operation: to them it seems to mean simply to help, whether it is building, 'cleaning up', or looking after themselves.

We have also learnt that children, provided they are satisfying their instinctive needs, have a power of concentration adults might envy. So we find they can work for longer periods than was formerly supposed: being free to change their occupation as they wish, they move about or talk to relieve the tension when they are tired, and when they sit doing nothing we know they are sickening for something. They also work in phases. They have an interest in say weaving, painting, number or building, for weeks on end: then they arrive at a certain level of proficiency and pass on, collecting accomplishments, instead of learning twenty minutes of this and thirty minutes of that at our bidding.

Surely this is how we learn from our hobbies! We come to a new thing with energy and delight, learning from it as much as we are capable of at that stage of our development, and then we pass on with added knowledge to some new aspect of life.

A New View of Teaching

But the greatest change of all is in the staff of a school run on these lines. It is necessary first, that every teacher should have a sound knowledge of child psychology and secondly that she should love the subject she undertakes to teach. Surely in the past, through wrong conditions, we as teachers have presumed too much. Few of us have sufficient knowledge of one subject, let alone a whole curriculum; and we have taken it for granted that vastly different types of children all wanted to learn what we wanted or were forced to teach them, instead of finding out first if they wanted to learn, and secondly if we knew anything worth teaching. We now know how important is the

child's introduction to life; we realize that every school needs a musician, an artist, a craftsman, a writer and a scientist, who are in a position to answer the numerous questions of the children and to help them express themselves. And every teacher needs to realize her responsibilities. It is difficult to think of oneself simply as a part of the child's environment and therefore a continual influence by example: it is practically impossible to subdue 'self' and only consider the child. But it is worth while trying. So many apparent naughtinesses are found not to be deserving of punishment when the cause is understood, and so much daily friction is allayed by the fact that the children can go where they choose, for they keep away from the teachers as well as from subjects which they do not like at the moment. As we all know, a child bears no continued malice and the next day all is forgotten. It ought to foster a more tolerant spirit, for grievances are not rubbed in, and a teacher is as free to exclude a child from the class if he does not work as the child is free not to attend the class.

Therefore if we are to put our theories into practice schools will become, despite their buildings, free busy places. Active children will learn for the sake of getting to know, neither coerced nor herded in masses unless a common interest has drawn them together, not lazy, for they will never have known the need to defend themselves with a barrier of indifference or incapacity against the aggression of adults. There will be noise and talk and work, and the wear and tear of things used by children, a tendency to ready laughter, together with an all-absorbing sense of the children's own importance. But at least the place will be alive and therefore will progress, and to learn will be an exciting joyous thing, an adventure for teacher and child.

THE JANUARY NUMBER OF THE NEW ERA

Will be devoted to

THE TEACHING OF MATHEMATICS

It will be edited by Dr. P. B. Ballard, and contributors will include A. L. Atkin, Margaret Drummond, Clement V. Durell, E. R. Hamilton, Anna M. Macheroni, and Carleton Washburne.

The Sentence Method of Teaching Reading

(From a Lecture delivered under the auspices of the New Education Fellowship)

MABEL BARNES

AFTER I had tried all methods of teaching reading, with the exception of the Sonnen-schein method, I decided to experiment with the Sentence method and use it for three years. I do not mind confessing now that I was often doubtful as to the results; but the experiment has proved entirely successful.

When my present school was opened, there were between two hundred and three hundred children from five to seven and a half. The older ones had been taught reading in many different ways and the younger ones, of course, had not been taught at all. We started to use the Sentence method with the children of five and did not interfere with the older children, though we discouraged the use of isolated words.

The Sentence as the Unit of Speech

The Sentence method is successful because it is a natural method. It begins with something the child knows. Even a baby, saying 'Dad-ad-ad' is really using the instinctive unit of speech, the sentence. It has the whole thought: 'This is my Daddy', or 'There is a man like my Daddy', in its mind, though it is unable to express it fully because it has no vocabulary. Children who are taught on the Sentence method use this unit from the beginning. As a result, they soon feel that they can read, and they enjoy their lessons and regard them as a game. Most of you will have used the Phonic system at some point of your careers, and you know all about the drudgery of that daily 'sound drill'. The Sentence method does away with that drudgery though of course it does not dispense with hard work.

Children who learn on the Sentence method are sentence-minded from the beginning. Their vocabularies, too, are much wider than those of children taught on the Phonic or other systems, for at no point are they restricted to words of two or three letters. As a result, their compositions reach a much higher standard and they begin to appreciate and understand good literature much earlier, because many of the simplest sentences are taken from really good verse and prose. In fact, the Sentence method of teaching reading has a very marked effect on the teaching of English.

The Sentence method is often criticized on the grounds that the children merely memorize their sentence cards and make no mental effort and that they cannot find out new words for themselves. But though the child, confronted with a sentence card, often jumps to the meaning of a word he does not know or has forgotten, this is not mere blind guessing. He is really making an intelligent effort, for he has to choose a word which will fit the context. In fact, the child does not read for the sound

but for the sense. If neither the context nor the illustration give him the unknown word, it must be told him. We have found that the Sentence method and the Phonic method cannot be combined. Under the old system, the child thinks only of the sounds and not of the meaning; under the new one, he thinks of the meaning and not of the separate sounds. Of course it is desirable that the child should learn the sounds of the letters at some point, but this should come later and is best taught in the speech training lessons, as it gives the teacher an excellent opportunity for correcting faults of pronunciation.

By the age of eight, children taught by the Sentence method can read any book containing words in their vocabulary and what is more they can give an intelligent summary of what they have read. They tend to have a wider vocabulary than children taught on other methods, and therefore they can understand more advanced books. This increased vocabulary enables the teacher to tell or to read to them a far greater number of stories and poems without explaining the more difficult words or substituting other simpler ones.

Apparatus for the Sentence Method

In teaching the Sentence method, all that is necessary are the illustrated Sentence cards, the same cards unillustrated, and reading books. Complicated apparatus is not required and there is no need to have a supply of separate words and letters which are always getting lost or spoilt.

Before the teacher begins to use the method, she must draw up a list of sentences for the term and choose pictures to illustrate them. The sentences can be taken from nursery rhymes or the poets (including Tagore) or they can describe activities of everyday life. There is no special formula which must be observed, but the sentences must have good pictures to illustrate them, they must be natural and above all they must be rhythmic. They must also be interesting and attractive to the children.

The Illustrated Sentence

When the teacher has chosen the supply of sentences, she prints them in bold white letters on black or brown cardboard, and she either paints a picture in vivid colours herself, or finds some ready-made illustration which will fit the point. She then writes out the same sentences on small cards, using no illustrations at all. In class she takes the first sentence, and tells the story of the picture, bringing the sentence in once or twice. Then she holds up the illustrated card so that all the class can see it, and the children read the sentence both

collectively and individually. It is always read rhythmically from the beginning: if a child makes a mistake over any word he must always begin again, so that the rhythm is not broken. This applies not only to the beginners, but to the older children as well. As the children read, the teacher listens for bad pronunciation, ugly tones and slurred endings and corrects these as far as she can. When the lesson is over the card is put up on the wall, and the teacher makes a point of referring to it frequently.

Children of five can learn four sentences a week: fifty sentences can be mastered each term (April to October, or November to March). Sometimes it is easier to take twenty-five sentences and then revise them thoroughly before going further.

Matching the Unillustrated Sentence Cards

When the children know the Sentence cards with pictures on them, they should be given the cards with the same sentences but with no illustration. Some children are able to read these cards without any difficulty, but the majority have some trouble. Each child is given an unillustrated card, and he matches it with the illustrated card hanging on the wall. Then he comes back with the small card and reads it to the teacher, pointing to each word. Sometimes he may have mixed two sentences because he recognized that they began with the same word. Then he is sent back to find the right picture, and when he has discovered it and finally read and pointed correctly, he writes the sentence out and makes his own picture for it. Sometimes the teacher gives the children a real writing lesson. She writes a sentence on the board and takes it word by word, naming each letter, the children thus unconsciously learning the alphabet.

The Reading Book

Though it is a mistake to be in a hurry to let the children have a Reader, by the time they have done fifty sentences they are ready to read a first book. It is delightful to have them feeling that they can already read and to see them face their first book with confidence. Either the *Beacon* or the *Field* Readers are excellent. After they have been through these readers—Parts I to III—the children seem to like little reading books which they can read page by page for themselves. After this they can go on to books IV, V and VI of the *Beacon* or *Field* series.

It is an excellent plan to have a book mark for each child, on which the number of the page and the date can be marked. At this stage wise teachers will pay special attention to the tail of the class, the children who have particular difficulty in learning to read. If they are given extra tuition while they are still in the middle of the school, they will have overcome their troubles by the time they reach Standard I, and will be good readers by the time they are ready for the Junior School.

When the fifty small cards have been finished,

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the children have one poetry card a week, right to the top of the school. Friezes, on which short poems are printed in bold letters, attractively decorated with pictures, can be hung round the classroom, and the children thus grow familiar with good poetry at a very early age. This is, of course, in addition to their reading books.

The Sentence Method and Composition

Perhaps the best proof of the success of the Sentence method—apart from the obvious fact that all the children taught by this system can read by the time they go on to the Junior School—is its effect on composition. I have said already that the compositions of quite young children reach a remarkably high standard. The most interesting point about these attempts at literary expression is that the children write easy flowing sentences from the first. In fact, they enjoy writing, and are not in the least puzzled by the difficulties of construction. There is nothing jerky or uncertain about these compositions: the children write long stories with surprising fluency and seem to have a natural sense of rhythm and of words.

In judging the Sentence method, it is necessary to take into account not only its efficiency as a method of teaching the mechanics of reading, but also the fact that children trained on this system reach an unusually high standard in composition and literature.

The Dalton Plan in a Senior School for Girls

(From a lecture given under the auspices of the New Education Fellowship)

ANNETTE HEFFORD

IN this lecture I want first of all to explain why we started the Dalton Plan, then to tell you how it was worked, and finally to discuss some of the results. Dissatisfaction with the old-fashioned way of working was the reason for wanting something different. It seemed to me that we were always telling the child what to do and giving it no opportunity to decide for itself. I wanted freedom for the child: I agreed with Caldwell Cook that a school should be a place of 'here we learn', not 'there they teach'. I also began to realize how much we were repressing the child, killing or driving underground energy which should have had free expression in action. I hated the 'sit-stillery'—a class of children sitting in front of a teacher who kept on talking whether the children understood or not. I felt that in class teaching the children had no opportunity of developing their own wills, though in after-life the 'will to do' is very important. Few people develop more than the mere 'will *not* to do' certain things. It is easy to know what not to do: what to do is more difficult to determine.

When I got a school of my own, I thought I should be able to give much more freedom to the children. This was very easy in theory and very difficult in practice. I wanted the children to be free to choose what they would do; but under the 'one teacher, one class, one room' system, it seemed impossible. There were eight classes in the school, with about fifty children in each; there was no spare room and no teacher without a class.

The Dalton Plan, when we heard of it, seemed to be a way out. We went to lectures on the subject and were able to see the Streatham School at work. It seemed to me that under this scheme it would be possible to free the children to a certain extent: at least they could escape from the constant pull between teacher and class.

The Working of the Plan

The children in our school were very good, so good that I was extremely worried and anxious to start a new method. We began with the top class, where the teacher gave the children assignments of work and allowed them freedom of choice as to when they would work them. But we soon felt that it was useless to restrict the scheme to one class, and decided after a staff meeting to try a form of Dalton Plan with all children who could get information from books. As the classes were large and we were only human we decided that we could not let the children get too far ahead of each other, so we arranged to keep them together and give them one group lesson weekly in the Dalton subjects. We gave them assignments

for one month's work, indicating weekly parts, and free time for working the assignments. Scripture, music and physical training could not be arranged on the Dalton system. These subjects and group lessons in other subjects are usually given in the first part of both sessions, the last half being devoted to free study.

Subject Rooms

During the free study period the class rooms become subject rooms, and the special mistress in charge of each subject remains in her own room, where all the apparatus—maps, charts and textbooks—referring to that subject are kept. The children can choose in which room they will do their assignment work. They can stay in any room they like for as long as they please: they can talk to the teacher if they wish, or to each other; but on the whole they do not talk to each other very much. When they have finished their work, they can use their time as they like: they can read books or do hand-work or start the next assignment or rehearse a play or paint or sew. They are very fond of writing stories or compiling booklets on subjects in which they are particularly interested: these of course are not marked. Occasionally some of the children offer to give lectures. We never suggest this to them; but a notice will suddenly appear outside a class room to say that So and So will give a lecture, and those who want to hear the lecture will line up outside the room. Some of the lectures are good, others bad; but the audience always behaves well and there have been as many as a hundred children present.

Assignments

Assignments are never standardized, because the teachers refuse to use them a second time, as they are always improving upon them. Each child has an assignment in each subject, and these usually last a month; but sometimes a fortnight's work only is given. The child always knows what it is going to do for at least a week ahead. The teacher, of course, must plan her whole year's work in advance; she must know exactly what section is to be covered each month and she must work out her assignments in detail for several weeks ahead.

Every piece of written work is marked in Wornington Road School. This adds considerably to the teacher's burden; but we think that as the work is done for someone to see, it should be marked. We try as far as possible not to give too much work which involves written answers. Very often the children are asked to learn material on which the teacher gives a short test at the beginning of the group lesson. Sometimes she divides the class into

groups, each with a leader, and the children themselves ask each other questions. In any case the teacher checks up each child's work every week, and thus is able to keep track of those who may get behind-hand.

We now have A. and B. groups (the A.s, of course, being the bright children), and the teachers have two kinds of assignments. People often ask what happens to the dull child who cannot keep up; but we never find that there is any difficulty in this way. The dull child has usually finished her work before the bright child, simply because she does not answer the questions so fully.

Success of the Plan

Personally, though we find that this modification of the Dalton Plan works splendidly, we are not satisfied that it provides sufficient freedom. For

instance, we have not discovered how to arrange for a child to choose what subjects to take up and what to drop. Nor can the quick children go on far from one assignment to another. The method is, however, extremely popular, not only with the staff but with the children, while the academic results are extremely good. Five years after the scheme was introduced, we had a special inspection, in connection with a report on the teaching of history. Forty-one schools were inspected, and though ours was marked as a 'special difficulty' school, it was the best of those examined both in written and oral work. It was proved, in fact, that the children were so interested in what they were doing that they did far more satisfactory work than better-class children taught on more stereotyped lines.

So the Dalton Plan provides some opportunity for developing will power: it makes for self-reliance: there is some elimination of that resistance, conscious or unconscious, of child to teacher: the discipline is the discipline of work.

The New Education Fellowship in South Africa

The South African Conference of the *New Education Fellowship* will be held in July, 1934. It will sit in Capetown from 2nd to 13th July at the University Buildings, Capetown, and again at the Witwatersrand University in Johannesburg from 16th to 27th July.

This is one of the special regional conferences organized by the *New Education Fellowship* in preparation for the great World Conference due to take place in 1935, and the theme will be 'The adaptation of education to meet the rapidly changing needs of society with special application to South Africa'.

Under this heading, two questions will be discussed: (1) How is education to meet the new demands made upon it by the rapid changes taking place in society? (2) How can education contribute to the improvement of society? The main lectures will deal with these two aspects of the central theme, but in addition there will be sectional courses and discussions on the following special topics: Problems of the Curriculum, Vocational Education, Vocational Tests and Guidance. Special attention will also be given to the following subjects: The Educational and Sociological Problems of the Rural Community, Problems in Social Adjustment, Problems and Adjustments in Changing African Society, Native Education and Sunday School Education. These subjects will be discussed in all their various aspects. Practically the same programme will be followed at both Capetown and Johannesburg, but Native Education will be more fully treated at the latter.

Speakers and lecturers have been invited from all over the world, while the Conference itself is under the patronage of Lt.-Col. the Right Hon. the Earl of Clarendon, P.C., G.C.M.G., Governor-General of the Union of South Africa. The Hon. Presidents are

General the Hon. J. B. M. Hertzog, LL.D., Prime Minister and Minister of External Affairs; General the Right Hon. J. C. Smuts, P.C., LL.D., Minister of Justice; The Hon. J. H. Hofmeyr, M.A., D.Sc., Minister of Education. Among the several eminent Vice-Presidents are the Hon. J. H. Conradie, Administrator Cape of Good Hope; Professor M. C. Botha, Superintendent-General of Education, Cape Province, and Professor S. P. E. Boshoff, Director of Education, Transvaal. The Organizing Secretary is Dr. E. G. Malherbe, Officer-in-Charge, National Bureau of Education, Union Buildings, Pretoria.

The list of speakers includes names which will be familiar to supporters of the N.E.F. and readers of *The New Era*: Professor Pierre Bovet, Dr. William Boyd, Prof. Cyril Burt, Prof. Fred Clarke, Prof. John Dewey, Mr. A. J. Lynch, Miss Helen Parkhurst, Lord Eustace Percy, Prof. Harold Rugg.

Nearly a hundred South African Organizations are supporting this conference, and everything will be done to make the visit of the European guests, of whom it is hoped there will be many, both pleasant and instructive. Special terms are being arranged with steamship and railway companies, and the return fare will cost about £46. Excursions to some of South Africa's most famous beauty spots—such as the Victoria Falls—have been organized at very moderate charges for visitors to the Conference. Members who are interested should apply to the Secretary of the *New Education Fellowship*, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1, for an illustrated booklet giving full particulars: South African members can obtain this from the Organizing Secretary of the Conference, Dr. E. G. Malherbe, at Union Buildings, Pretoria.

International Notes

NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP NEWS

London Headquarters

Special Xmas Offer

Our recent publication, *A New World in the Making* (an International Survey of New Education edited by Wyatt Rawson), is an ideal Christmas present. To members who wish to send copies to their friends (or who wish to give a present to themselves) we are making a special offer between 1st and 25th December of copies at 6s. each, post free (instead of 8s.). The books can be packed at Headquarters and mailed so as to be delivered on any specified date. Order NOW.

Friday Teas

At Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, W.C.1, there is 'Tea and Talk' every Friday from 5 to 6.30 p.m. for any who care to come. During November the following guests spoke at these teas:—Miss E. M. Nevill ('Some Experiences of Mental Testing'), Mme Kharitonova (Director of the Moscow Institute of Scientific Pedagogy) on 'Characteristic Features of Russian Education', Dr. E. G. Malherbe (Director of the National Bureau of Education, Pretoria). In December there will be talks from Miss Dorothy Moulton (Mrs. Robert Mayer), co-founder of the R. Mayer Concerts for Children, and Mr. A. V. Judges on 'The Teaching of Social History in Schools.'

The last tea before Christmas will be on 15th December.

At Home of the English Association of New Schools

On Saturday, 18th November, a most successful evening party was given by this Association. The hosts and hostesses included Lord and Lady Allen of Hurtwood, Lady Balfour, Dr. Ralph Crowley, Mr. E. Salter Davies, Professor Julian Huxley and Mrs. Susan Isaacs. Among the distinguished guests were Professor and Mrs. Ellis, the Hon. Mrs. Franklin, Sir James and Lady Henderson, Dr. Pryns Hopkins, Mr. and Mrs. Guy Kendall, Dr. Crichton Miller, Dr. Neurath, Miss Grace Owen, Sir Richard Paget, Miss Sheldon, Dr. Armstrong Smith, Mr. J. M. Upward, Miss Wace and Miss Olive Wright. Some visual educational material of the Mundaneum Institute, Vienna, was on view, and proved a great attraction. Interesting addresses were given by Lord Allen of Hurtwood, Dr. Kurt Hahn, Mr. S. H. Wood of the Board of Education and Mr. C. A. Siepmann, of the B.B.C.

Annual Presidential Address

The annual Presidential address of the *English Section* of the *Fellowship* will be given by Mr. R. H. Tawney on 'Educational Ideals and Social Realities' at 5 p.m.

on Wednesday, 3rd January, at University College, Gower Street, W.C.1. The Annual Business Meeting will be held on the same afternoon at 3 p.m. in the University, followed by tea at 4 p.m. Members will receive detailed notice in due course.

Lectures

The lecture series, 'Re-Creating the Technique of Teaching', arranged by Headquarters, opened with meetings that overflowed into the Jews College nearby! These crowded meetings dealt with the teaching of infants, but now that the lectures dealing with senior and secondary work have been reached, there is a great falling off in the number attending. Why is this?

The December lectures are 'Modern Language Teaching in "B" Forms', by A. B. Clegg on 1st December, and 'Individual Work from 5 to 11 plus', by E. Weighell on 8th December, at 29 Tavistock Square, W.C.1, at 6.45 p.m.

Subscriptions

Some full members of the Fellowship (i.e. those who pay £1. 1s. per annum and are thus (a) members of the English Section, (b) World Fellow members, (c) receivers of the New Era) have not yet paid their subscription for the period October, 1933-34. May we please have renewals before Christmas?

For full particulars of the *New Education Fellowship* apply 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

Uruguay

We learn that at the first National Congress of Teachers held in Uruguay recently, the Organization of Education was discussed. The Congress came to the conclusion that the educational authority should be recognized as the most important administrative power of the State. This authority should include in its personnel educators in the broadest sense of the word—teachers, professors, artists and writers—and it should provide free and compulsory education for all children of school age, together with financial assistance where necessary. The gainful employment of children of school age should be prohibited. The Congress also recommended that rural schools should be organized as the cultural centre of the district they serve: teachers should be given better salaries than those in city schools and should have ample opportunities for recreation.

Paraguay

We are glad to learn that in spite of the dispute between Bolivia and Paraguay and the constant fighting, the Colegio Internationale still flourishes. For some months the building was used as a hospital, but at the express wish of the President of the Republic, the school was reopened last April, and the scholastic year has been very successful.

Partners wanted for School Abroad

We have heard of an interesting plan to start a school for the daughters of British and Western European residents in Cyprus. Two partners are wanted to provide a little capital. Further particulars can be obtained from the *N.E.F.*

Students and others wishing to know of a pleasant home in Germany should communicate with the *N.E.F.*, through which they can obtain particulars of a charming home in a university town.

Society for Cultural Relations Between Great Britain and U.S.S.R.

Two lectures on the Teaching Profession in the U.S.S.R. will be given by Madame R. Kharitonova (Director of the Moscow Institute of Scientific Pedagogy) on 7th December and 18th January, at 8.15 p.m., at Meg's Café, 1 Parton Street, W.C.1.

The Little Newspaper

We are glad to welcome this venture which has been successfully launched in South Africa. The *Little Newspaper* is printed in both English and Afrikaans, thus providing a medium whereby the youth of two races can be brought together in friendship. At present the news is limited to South African topics, but it is hoped later to exchange news with the youth of other countries. Readers of the *New Era* will be particularly interested in Mrs. Ensor's contribution to one of the early numbers.

A New Quarterly Review

We await with pleasurable anticipation the publication of a new quarterly review, *Religion in Education*, by the Student Christian Movement Press. The Editor is Dr. Basil Yeaxlee, and the first number appears on 15th December.

Comment on 'New and Old in Africa'

We are glad to receive from a correspondent who works in Africa a comment on Chapter IX ('New and Old in Africa') of *A New World in the Making* (*New Education Fellowship*, 7s. 6d.). After welcoming the opinion expressed there that Western educationists in South Africa must study 'local conditions, customs and psychology' before attempting to introduce Western educational methods, he continues: 'The Africans must achieve a system *for themselves* if it is to have any value, and we can do little more than show them the best that we know and let them take what they want from our store.'

The Carnegie Grant to the Home and School Council

We are delighted to hear that the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust has granted to the *Home and School Council* £1,800 over a period of three years, which will help to provide further lectures and more literature and to extend this excellent work further afield.

Nursery School Association of Great Britain

The Winter Conference of the Nursery School Association will be held in connection with the Conference of Educational Associations at University College, Gower Street, W.C.1, on Friday,

SUMMER HOLIDAYS IN SOUTH AFRICA

JOIN THE NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP'S PARTY TO SOUTH AFRICA

and

ATTEND THE N.E.F.'S CONFERENCE AT CAPETOWN, 2nd—13th July,
or JOHANNESBURG, 16th—27th July

Ocean Travel from England, third class return:— **£46 (approx.)**

Accommodation during Conference :— 8/- per day inclusive

(For notes on the educational programme see p. 252 of this number)

Illustrated brochure and full particulars from the *New Education Fellowship*, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

5th January, 1934. An opening meeting will be held in the morning, when Dr. E. Graham Howe will lecture on 'The Meaning of Mental Health.' The chair will be taken by Miss Jebb. In the afternoon, from 2 to 4, the annual meeting of the Association will take place. There will be a discussion on

the report of the Consultative Committee. A discussion on 'The Nursery School Probationer' will be held from 5 to 6 on the evening of the same day. It is hoped that all members will attend the members' meetings and will help to make widely known the open meeting.

Book Reviews

America in School and College. Dr. W. Boyd. (Edinburgh: The Educational Institute of Scotland. 3s. 6d.)

What may be called the 'traveller's-eye view' is becoming a real source of danger in the world. Backed by sufficient vehemence and self-assurance the pose of 'I ought to know because I have been there' can often get itself accepted, and those who stay at home may be seriously misled by these perambulatory *Dogberrys*, dressed in their little brief authority.

Where the question at issue is one of simple material fact, of mines in Johannesburg or skyscrapers in New York, little harm may be done. But where the less palpable things of the spirit are concerned, as in studies of politics or education, much mischief may ensue. Even a Bernard Shaw may require a stay of more than a week or two in order to be in a position to say anything worth while about South Africa or China.

It is fairly safe to say that in this more subtle and intangible field of things of the spirit, two conditions at least must be fulfilled by those who would undertake the task of interpreting another country's life and thought. They must *work* in the country and come to its problems in the light of the everyday responsibilities which those problems impose on the ordinary citizen (you begin to learn something about a South African bi-lingual school when you set out to train teachers for it) and they must steep themselves in the country's history—not the usual guide-book stuff, but the story of that long and complicated play of influences which has produced national minds and habits of a certain type.

Dr. Boyd's *Odyssey* fulfils the first of these conditions more completely than it does the second. That is only natural: even the born American takes a long time to relate present conditions to past history in any intelligent fashion. As to the first condition, Dr. Boyd not only worked for a year or more in different parts of America, but he had his whole family with him and planted members of it out in well-chosen spots to work there also, and so to extend the range of his own eyes and ears.

The result is a piece of shrewd and vivid interpretation which is a model both of sound judgment and of good manners. Dr. Boyd never comes within a thousand miles of being in the least degree superior or offensive. On the contrary, even his American friends might feel that occasionally he is a little too kind. But his well-considered criticisms are likely to have much more effect from being conveyed in a large wrapping of appreciation and sympathetic understanding.

Dr. Boyd's main position is that American technique and practices must be judged in the light of

what the Americans themselves are setting out to do. Much criticism, even in America itself, is vitiated by this confusion. The critics attack techniques when they mean really to attack the ends and values by which these techniques are ruled. Dr. Boyd has no difficulty in showing that if you accept, even provisionally, the 'American Idea', there is a large and liberal rationality in the practices from which other lands might learn a good deal. He is not blind to the weaknesses and extravagances—the misunderstanding of tradition, the exaggerated hopes from science, the vice of 'immediacy' in thought and the liking for the deceptive short cut, and other defects that are obvious enough. But he is rightly insistent throughout on the view that if a man is out to catch a big basketful of herrings you are not entitled to criticize him as though he were fishing for trout. What you *can* do is to show that he is not going the right way even to get his herrings. Thus there are those who argue, with some justice, that even accepting wholly the democratic ideals of American education, the methods are too naive, too much sentimentalized, too much lacking in subtlety and insight, to achieve the desired end. Or you can question the end, and argue that a basketful of herrings is poor stuff anyway, and that a fry of delicate trout is far better. Then you raise the overmastering issue of American culture, what it is and what it is to be. This great question Dr. Boyd leaves very wisely to the Americans themselves, who are debating it eagerly and anxiously enough just now. It would seem that his shrewd modesty tells him that he has not the basis of historical knowledge to participate effectively in such a debate.

It is this same lack of historical knowledge which seems to underlie a judgment by Dr. Boyd about Canada that one might be disposed to question. He permits himself a modest and cursory note on Canada, disclaiming any desire to be taken too seriously. His estimate of the Canadian systems as they exist to-day shows that he has a sure eye for the significant things and a habit of wise caution in hazarding any interpretations. But when he says, very guardedly, 'I am tempted to say that the Canadian schools are American in features and Scottish in spirit', he is venturing on ground where the historical thread is the only safe guide. Of that thread it may be doubted whether he has a sure grip. Scottish traits are present, no doubt, but they spring from accidents of personnel rather than from any basic intention or any conscious copying. The root memories from which the inner inspiration of Canadian education springs belong to this continent and not to Europe. There is less of Scotland and much more of Canada in it than Dr. Boyd seems to realize.

No apology is needed for the length of this review. Dr. Boyd's little book is of great value and can be strongly recommended as a well-balanced and penetrating commentary on a great subject. It is worth a great deal more than many books which have appeared with far greater pretensions.

F. Clarke

Parents, Children and Money. S. M. and B. C. Gruenberg. (Viking Press. \$1.75.)

This is an excellent book. The subject is of vast importance and one seldom systematically and logically considered. Money matters form such an important part in the framework of the home, that the reactions of children to them should be carefully studied. It is better for the child to have some definite and early understanding of monetary values, than to drift on in pleasant ignorance of what can be the blessing or bane of existence. Moreover, the simplest money dealings open up a new world to the child, a world of excitement, of pleasures and dangers; and all of them more or less artificial. The initiation of the child to the vast complications of exchange and purchase must be handled with the greatest care. On it may depend not only integrity of character, but ability to make his way in the world later on.

Parents, Children and Money is as good a guide book as one could desire. While it presupposes some knowledge of the workings of a child's mind, it is never technical and never complicated, and the basis of the book is common-sense rather than theory. The evidence is collected from every conceivable angle, and is commented upon so helpfully that it must be of service to every parent and teacher of intelligence. So wide is the source of information and so well told the examples, that the reading is of interest and amusement even to those not actively concerned with the problem. The story of the child who threatened to lie in the gutter to force her mother into generosity, the history of the boys who not only made such a magnificent deal in *Cafeteria* tickets, but succeeded in justifying their 'unethical' action (surely these two will be among the financial magnates of the future, if such persons continue to exist?), the pathos of the children who broke the lamp and shot an arrow through the oil painting, the good fortune of the golfer's granddaughter—all these are excellent reading, and in addition they bring to one's mind personal experiences that might otherwise have seemed of no psychological importance.

The writers claim the child's 'right to make mistakes', which will also recommend the book to a multitude of wretched parents. From the start the importance of values is emphasized, and the harm done by indiscriminate rewards, and, conversely, the docking of pocket money as a punishment. The writers point out that too much stress laid on the value of money may give an altogether wrong impression: from being a convenient method of exchange, money may become more a symbol of 'social value and worth'.

An interesting point raised is that the so-called 'money sense' is often something quite different. Children save, not necessarily because they are

thrifty, but because the possession of a quantity of coins gives them a feeling of security totally unrelated to their actual purchasing power. Alternatively, others spend to show off, or to give themselves superiority in their own eyes. As the writers say, in petty thieving, silly spending and the like, it is not the child's 'money habits that are at fault, but factors in adjustment to life as a whole are responsible for this practice'.

The chapter on children earning money is a little less convincing than the others, which is largely due to differences between English and American life. The chapter on lending and borrowing, however, is extremely helpful, though possibly the more old-fashioned reader may be horrified that all forms of borrowing are not utterly condemned. But perhaps it is the section in the last chapter on 'changing circumstances' that will be the most eagerly studied by the average reader.

The book comes at an opportune moment. The financial situation of the world is not of the happiest, and the more sense and reason that can be taught to the rising generation on the handling of money the better. This book will do more than an intensive study of economics.

Hester Marsden-Smedley

The Method and Technique of Teaching.

Dr. Percival Cole, Vice-Principal of Sydney Teachers' College. (Oxford University Press. 12s. 6d.)

Unlike the usual treatise on teaching this volume is almost entirely practical in its character and outlook. It bears the obvious marks of having been written by one who knows and understands the school from the inside; moreover, while couched in homely language, it displays a style that holds the reader throughout.

Dr. Cole, having dealt with the 'lesson' from all angles, proceeds to deal with 'subjects'. All the subjects of the school curriculum are passed under review and the pros and cons fairly stated. As he develops his ideas about them he discusses *en passant* the various school methods. One finds it difficult to endorse all Dr. Cole's conclusions as, for example, those on the Dalton Plan. But this is no argument against the book, for no amount of difference of opinion can alter by one iota the fact that Dr. Cole has given us a refreshing and stimulating treatment of the problems of everyday school.

A. J. Lynch

Bureau International d'Education. The description, in my November review of *l'Annuaire International de l'Education et de l'Enseignement*, of the *Bureau International* as a 'private centre' may lead to misunderstanding. The *Bureau* is in fact the official educational information centre of nine countries, of which the last two to join were Belgium and Germany. It is clear that its work and position cannot possibly be ignored by the League of Nations, should the League decide to undertake the provision of educational information of the type that the *Bureau* is already providing in such an excellent manner.

Wyatt Rawson

Retrospect and Prospect. *Sara A. Burstall.*
(Longmans. 7s. 6d.)

Histories of education are commonly heavy reading punctuated with dates, Acts of Parliament and the like, and devoid of human interest; but in this book the development of education during a critical half-century, given us in the memory and experience of a great teacher, achieves a natural vividness and unity.

The first chapter of the book gives an interesting account of Sara Burstall's childhood in Aberdeen, of the strength, robustness and simplicity of that life: her total absence of 'pose' or self-consciousness in later life was probably largely the result of her early training in the granite town on the Northern Sea. During her school life at the Camden School and afterwards at the North London Collegiate School, she came into contact with two great pioneers of girls' education, Francis Buss and Sophie Bryant, and to their wisdom and foresight she pays a generous tribute.

Other formative influences in her life were her student days at Girton, and her visits to America. She speaks of the spell which Girton laid upon her, and describes how she learnt there 'some measure of humility and found her soul'. Later, as holder of the Gilchrist scholarship, she visited America, a visit repeated with success during her headmistress-ship. She contrasts favourably the free discipline, the absence of examination pressure, the easy passage from school to University, which she observed in America, with the condition of contemporary English schools. She tells us that she returned to England 'believing more deeply in the spiritual vocation of a teacher and with a deeper faith.'

All that training, experience and her own fresh and vigorous mind had taught her, was at the service of the Manchester High School for Girls, to which she was appointed Headmistress in 1898, and where she remained for twenty-seven years. From the point of view of an educationist, it is interesting to read between the lines of this book how much care for individuals, how much elasticity of curriculum, what ever-increasing freedom can be secured by a wise and strong Headmistress working within the framework of a State system of education; for in 1901 Manchester High School came voluntarily 'under the Board'. It is true that during the years immediately following the War, Miss Burstall felt herself 'let and hindered' by Board of Education regulations and the demands for Advanced Courses and Higher Certificate examinations; but one is tempted to think that this was unnecessary, as experience shows that the Board regulations are laid down for the specific purpose of raising the standard of work in the upper forms, and are speedily relaxed when the object is attained or when in the experience of the teachers they prove to be more of a hindrance than a help.

In her work in Manchester, Miss Burstall was a pioneer in many directions: she insisted on the inclusion of Science, and Biology in particular, in the

RETROSPECT & PROSPECT

SIXTY YEARS OF WOMEN'S EDUCATION

by

SARA A. BURSTALL, LL.D.

Preface by Sir Michael Sadler, K.C.S.I.

"In many ways Miss Burstall has played an important part in the advancement of women's education and interests, and this is a wise, helpful and high-minded book."

—Observer.

"One of the best books ever written by a schoolmistress."

—Dr. J. M. BULLOCH.

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curriculum, and she early realized the importance of Domestic Science taken in conjunction with a general cultural course. Miss Burstall urges the need for closer co-operation between parents and teachers, and quotes as desirable the line laid down in Scotland for the relation between Church and State—'co-ordinate jurisdiction with mutual subordination'. In her openly expressed anxiety as to the lessening of the parents' influence and disregard of parents' feelings in the system of free, State-controlled education, she voices a real danger.

In her last chapter, Miss Burstall discusses 'unsolved problems', and makes suggestions for their solution. The relationship of the Universities to the secondary schools is one of these problems, and many headmistresses share Miss Burstall's anxiety as to the sixth-form girls in these schools, whose health is menaced by the excessively specialized standard required for the scholarships at Oxford and Cambridge.

This book is pleasant and stimulating reading, both for those whose own life history is contemporaneous with that of the author (for them the past is quickened and interpreted) and also for the younger generation who in their zeal for progress and for 'new ideals' do not always realize their immense indebtedness to the past. To quote Sir Michael Sadler, 'it is a brave and heartening book and points the way to future reforms.'

E. Addison Phillips

The Human Personality. *Louis Berg, M.D.*
(Williams & Norgate, Ltd. 8s. 6d.)

This book focusses a wealth of new light upon the problem of the individual. For the general reader lively historical sketches illustrated by 'human documents' are used to summarize current views upon such topics as the endocrine glands, vitamins, heredity and sex, the psychology of the unconscious, dreams, conflict and insanity—to indicate but a few of the fields surveyed—the author's idea being to convey exact notions of the individual's growth and response to his environment. The result is thus broadly sociological rather than purely biological. Parents and teachers would, therefore, find the book of particular interest as encouraging them to a frank appraisal of their own personal 'make-up' and a better understanding of the child.

The chief value of the book is to be found in its extensive range, enticing even the specialist to wander beyond his habitual studies in an attempt to make a synthesis of the bewildering mass of detail offered by modern science, and providing the non-specialist with an interpretation of his private riddles which he finds to his amazement may enable him in some sort to become his own psychoanalyst.

Dr. Berg writes in such sober good faith that we must forgive him calling a baby 'a bundle of kicking protoplasm' and telling us that 'sex is life'. And indeed such phrasing is a matter of little moment in a volume penned, not for the harassed examinee, but for the wide public on both sides of the Atlantic who will welcome Dr. Berg's help in resolving their conflicts and pointing the way to a chance of happiness.

Chetwynd Palmer

Living With Our Children. In connection with the November review of Miss Slight's valuable book, we very much regret that she should have been described as a 'teacher in an American elementary school'. Though Miss Slight studied for some time in America, she is herself English, and the experiments she describes were partly carried out in Manchester elementary schools.

Der Menschliche Lebenslauf Als Psychologisches Problem. *Dr. Charlotte Bühler*
(Extraordinary Professor at the University of Vienna). (S. Hirzel. Leipzig. 1933.)

Dr. Charlotte Bühler, who is well-known for her work on child psychology, has here put educationalists under a new obligation to her by investigating the nature of the human career as a whole. This book studies the character of the individual life—the rise and fall of its physical vitality, the expansion and restriction of its activities, the increasing tendency to seek for a specific purpose in life and the desire to achieve certain definite results. Dr. Bühler's material is not extensive, but has been intensively worked over. It includes the life histories of fifty inhabitants of a Viennese alms-house, gleaned by the method of anamnesis, and detailed studies of two hundred well-known personalities such as Lizst, Carnegie, Humboldt, Stresemann, Isadora Duncan, Mrs. Eddy, and so on.

The theme of the book is that life has, or should have, an individualized purpose for each one of us but we do not find our vocation until we have passed through two preliminary periods, one of mere functional living and another of search for a purpose in life. The life of the child and of the adolescent is a preliminary sketch of the whole later career. The greatest problem in life is the transference from the dominance of a mere satisfaction of inner impulses and needs to the fulfilment of a life purpose. Such a transference can be seen in the case of a career like that of Nansen, or in the noticeable change which came over Caruso's art in later life. But the pursuit of an aim means also giving up satisfactions which are inconsistent with it: where the need for this self-sacrifice is not recognized, as in the case of Isadora Duncan in her relations with Lohengrin, a career is bound ultimately to fail.

This is a fascinating book, which should certainly be translated into English; for its appeal is as much to the religious and philosophic as to the scientific mind.

Wyatt Rawson

Children's Books Recommended

DASHENKA (The Life of a Puppy). *Karel Capek*
(Allen & Unwin) 5s.

SEEK THERE (A Story of Braemar). *Eleanor Helme and Nance Paul* (Eyre & Spottiswoode) 7s. 6d.

THE TOP OF THE MOUNTAIN. *Ella Monckton*
(Nelson) 3s. 6d.

FAIRIES AND ENCHANTERS. *Amabel Williams-Ellis*
(Nelson) 7s. 6d.

THE AMBER GATE. *Kitty Barne* (Nelson) 3s. 6d.

WILD LIFE STORIES. *Maribel Edwin* (Nelson)
3s. 6d.

THE BOOK OF SCIENTIFIC DISCOVERY. *D. M. Turner* (Harrap) 7s. 6d.

THE CARPENTER'S TOOL CHEST. *Thomas Hibben*
(Routledge) 5s.

LET'S DO A PLAY. *Rodney Bennett* (Nelson)
3s. 6d.

TADDY TADPOLE. *Olwen Bowen* (Nelson) 2s. 6d.

100,000 WHYS. *M. Ilin* (Routledge) 3s. 6d.

WHITHER SHALL WE WANDER? *Rodney Bennett*.
(University of London Press) 5s.

THE AMATEUR PRODUCER'S HANDBOOK. *F. Sladen-Smith* (University of London Press) 2s.

BEFORE BREAKFAST (A Colour Book with Rhymes). *Janet and Robert Austin* (Dent) 1s.

RECENT HEROES OF MODERN ADVENTURE. *Bridges and Tiltman* (Harrap) 3s. 6d.

TELL-THEM-AGAIN TALES. *Margaret Baker* (University of London Press) 2s. 6d.

PARENTS : A N D CHILDREN

SUPPLEMENT TO "THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL"

PRICE 3d.

VOL. 1. No. 6. MARCH 1933

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

E. A. HAMILTON-PEARSON

WE are far too apt to think that all people are very much alike and that everyone's mind works in much the same way; we expect them all to be able to do the same forms of work almost equally well. But this idea is responsible for most of our misunderstandings about other people's actions and for our inability to judge their capacities.

Misunderstandings of this kind frequently arise in dealing with children, and many of the nervous disturbances of childhood are due to this wrong outlook. For instance, if one child in the family is intellectually brilliant, his performance is only too often taken as a standard for the others. But unless the other children have a similar mental make-up, they are set an impossibly high standard in subjects for which they probably have very little ability. They

realize the futility of their efforts, they lose confidence, they may become neurotic and in any case they fail to make any use of the aptitudes they do possess. This situation is very common, and it need never arise if only parents and teachers would understand that intellectual attainment is not the only standard by which developing minds should be judged. Each child has his own gifts, and if children are rightly handled they will be given scope for developing the aptitudes they do possess, instead of being forced to develop along certain lines which may be quite unsuitable for them.

Understanding other People

The first thing we must do if we wish to understand other people is to grasp the fact that there are several kinds of mind, as different





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from each other as the shapes of noses, mouths and eyes. Each has its own qualities, aptitudes and interests. We *must* understand this if we are to help the individual child to develop his particular gifts. This understanding is important in the early years of childhood and at adolescence, because at these periods of life the whole basis of character is laid. If the child is allowed, both at home and at school, to develop his interests and capacities as fully and freely as possible, his character will be strong and well balanced. He will learn to make efforts along the lines in which he is interested, and the

results will be useful, not only to himself, but also to society. If he is forced along lines which starve his interests and thwart his gifts, the child makes efforts which end unsuccessfully and he will tend to lose confidence and ultimately to become neurotic: as an adult he will probably be a failure.

The Three Divisions of Mind

It is possible to demonstrate nine distinct types of mind, each with its own interests and aptitudes, its own approach to and appreciation of the things of life, each requiring its own special educational training. But it is not possible in a short article to do more than indicate roughly the ideas on which this classification is based. If we study ourselves and other people, especially children, we will quickly realize that man has not one indivisible mind, but three separate divisions of mind. Each division has its own separate way of thinking and its own particular functions. The Intellectual Mind works by association, it is theoretical and capable of abstract thought—about mathematics for instance. The Emotional Mind is actuated by one or other of the emotions, such as love or hate, like or dislike. It is not logical or theoretical, but imaginative and artistic. It finds expression, perhaps in music. The Practical Mind governs the working of the body and the muscular movements. Its thinking is not logical or theoretical, but is concerned with partial relationships, speed and distance, the form of objects, etc. It derives its material from the experience of muscular movements and physical sensations. It is imitative. These minds work in quite different ways, and it is easy to understand this if we see how each of them appreciates Time. The Intellectual Mind always sees time as a logical sequence of seconds, minutes, hours, etc. But the Emotional Mind judges time by its own state at the moment. If we are happy, an hour passes like a minute; if we are unhappy, it drags past like three. This again is specially noticeable in children. But the Practical Mind knows time accurately without any relation to feeling or outside agency. It is the type which can wake of itself at any hour of the night.

In each individual, one mind is always predominant, and of the two others one is more

clearly defined than the others. The combination of these three minds gives us the particular character belonging to a particular person. For instance, if the intellectual mind is predominant, the child or adult will be interested in intellectual subjects and in theories of all kinds. This type makes the scholar. The interests of the people in whom the Emotional Mind predominates will be in emotional subjects—art or music, acting and so on. They are essentially unlogical. The people in whom the Practical Mind predominates enjoy manipulative work, and practical occupations are essential to them. This type makes the craftsman or the skilled housewife.

Different Types Need Different Treatment

The differences between individuals, whether they are adults or children, are numerous, and it is essential that this should be understood. What may be a helpful education for one child will be hopelessly wrong for another. For instance, a boy aged fifteen was brought by a despairing and acutely annoyed father. His school reported that the child was unteachable, and his general behaviour was so bad that they advised his removal. His parents said that while he had been at school he had changed from an average, decently behaved youth into a surly, intractable person, at times violent in temper. Ordinary intelligence tests showed that he was quite capable of doing the work of his form at school. But the school gave a classical education, and the boy was intensely interested in mechanical things. This interest was being absolutely starved. He felt that his time at school was being wasted and, as he blamed his father for sending him there, he could not explain the position to him. He belonged to the type in which the Practical Mind predominates, and he could not profit from intellectual and theoretical teaching. His father transferred him to a school which based its theoretical teaching on practical training in engineering and the boy began to do well, even in the subjects which had defeated him before. His whole character changed to a genial, friendly self-confidence.

Another case, a girl of twelve, was sent by her school to see what could be done for her. She was so completely lacking in confidence that not even the gentlest handling could keep her

from floods of tears, and she appeared to be unable to learn anything. Her father was an intellectual man, who worshipped intellectual success and judged everyone by that standard. But in the child the Emotional Mind predominated, and she was a brilliant musician for her age. Unfortunately the father looked on music as a fatuous waste of time and forbade it. He drove the child along the lines he admired until she broke down. In another year or two she would have been a confirmed neurotic. When the headmistress of the school understood the position, she started the child on music, and directly her interest was satisfied the girl gained confidence and was able to do the ordinary school work in a thoroughly satisfactory manner.

Then there was a boy of twelve who had taken to persistent stealing. He went to a poorly equipped school which only taught the rudiments of education. But the thefts he was charged with all showed that he was able to



make skilful plans and that he had great manual dexterity. He used sometimes to open automatic machines and give his companions the money, for all he wanted himself was the satisfaction of his own skill in abstracting the coins. He was one of the practical types; the school work was too elementary to occupy his attention for long, and he had no chance of satisfying his interest in manual work. Baulked of any outlet, all his aptitude went into the unsatisfactory channel of stealing. He would soon have become a thoroughly skilful criminal. But he was saved from this by being sent to an institution where thorough training for both mind and hands was given, and after two years the boy is becoming a skilled

craftsman and has lost all interest in theft.

These few examples make it clear that an education which captures a child's individual interests and trains his special aptitudes will enable him to become a balanced and useful person. In the cases quoted, the right type of education undoubtedly saved these children from serious neurosis and in one case from crime. But it is of vital importance that all parents should realize that in the normal family among quite normal children there are vast differences in character and aptitudes. Each child must be judged as an individual and must not be forced to conform to the type of some older brother or to the standard of performance set up arbitrarily by the parents.

POINTS FOR PARENTS TO REMEMBER

1. No two children are alike in character. Recognize and encourage the differences between your children, the world needs men and women of many varying types.
2. Every child needs to be handled as an individual person *from infancy*. Methods that suit Jane and John may not suit Tommy. The school that was so splendid for John may not be so good for his brother.
3. One of your children may be a brilliant scholar. But the others may be equally good in other ways, if they are given the chance. Don't let them feel that you are disappointed because they are not so quick
- at book-learning. Remember they may turn out to be successful as athletes, artists, or craftsmen.
4. Do not make up your mind beforehand that your child must necessarily take after his parents in either character or profession.
5. Do not blame your child if he seems to be a 'misfit' in home or school. Try and find out why this is so by co-operating with his teachers, or if necessary, seek advice from a Child Guidance Clinic.
6. Find out where your child's interests and ability really lie and then help him to make the most of his gifts.

HELPFUL BOOKS

EDWARD AND MARIGOLD. *Marjorie Thorburn* (Geo. Allen & Unwin, 5s.).

The everyday story of two children told with so much insight that every parent with young children can gain understanding from it.

OUR CHILDREN. *Compiled by Dorothy Canfield Fisher and Sidonie M. Gruenberg* (Viking Press, New York, \$2.75)

An excellent and valuable summary of many problems of childhood.

TALENTS AND TEMPERAMENTS. *Angus Macrae* (Nisbet and Cambridge University Press, 5s.)

An able account of vocational guidance and its purpose in helping parents and children to find the right career.

WHAT SHALL I BE? *Amabel Williams-Ellis* (Heinemann. 6s.)

An admirable book about careers written from the child's point of view.

ON BRINGING UP CHILDREN

An Interview

with



MISS JOAN

SUTHERLAND

IN bringing up children', said Miss Sutherland, 'it's character that counts. The early years of life, of course, are particularly important, but however many teachers a child may have, character formation depends mainly on the parents' influence. We may not all like this responsibility, but we cannot evade it.'

Miss Sutherland, who in private life is Mrs. Richard Kelly, speaks from experience. She has a representative family of four, two girls and two sons, already at public school.

'Everyone needs discipline', she went on. 'I don't think you can have any value as a human-being without it. Discipline may involve punishment, but it must not be made an excuse for venting bad-temper on a small child. In fact, I've come to the conclusion that punishments should be avoided as far as possible, though there may be occasions on which they are necessary. But the vital thing is that the discipline we impose should eventually teach children to discipline themselves.'

Lessons and Languages

'Children should be left as free as possible. I don't think, for instance, that they should begin lessons very young. None of mine started systematic work till they were seven. The boys learned their letters and numerals before then, of course, but they picked them up in their own way and at their own speed, quite without

compulsion. When they were seven, work began in earnest; reading, writing and arithmetic, of course, and French and German too. Languages are essential', Miss Sutherland maintains. 'They open up such realms of literature and understanding later on'. The children are fortunate, for Miss Sutherland is herself of French descent, and has

already imbued them with her own gift of tongues. Both her boys speak two languages besides English perfectly, and at meals the family often contributes to the conversation in French, German and Italian.

Learn to Use Leisure

Miss Sutherland is intensely interested in both drama and films, but she does not believe that young children should get into the habit of going regularly to cinemas and matinées. 'It's such a pity', she said, 'to let them grow up expecting to find amusements ready-made for them by other people. It is far better to let them find their pleasure in doing and making things for themselves. Particularly', she added, 'in these days when jobs are so scarce and there is so much more leisure, often enforced leisure, for both young and old. If only children can be taught to use it well they will stand a far better chance of being happy when they grow up. The blasé child', she concluded emphatically, 'is a disastrous and tragic thing.'

WALKS AND HOW TO MAKE THEM INTERESTING

C. M. STYER

DULL walks! How many of us suffered from them in our childhood and how many children to-day trail wearily by the pram, simply longing to be indoors again. There is no need for any walk, even a town one, to be dull, and indeed, if it is allowed to be, a very great deal of the good done by fresh air and exercise will be undone by boredom.

Walks are not always essential. Even in a small town garden, children can get plenty of exercise and amusement if they are turned out with skipping ropes or allowed to dig in their own small patch; and, when the weather is mild, this kind of outdoor occupation makes an excellent change.

Exciting Walks

But, when walks are necessary, very little thought will change them from a dreary form of exercise to an outing to which the children will eagerly look forward.

If the grown-up in charge is sociable and makes friends easily, so much the better—provided they are friends with children. Children always enjoy meeting each other, even if they are not exactly the same age. And if they find, meet and play with Mary and John and Joan and Peter, they will gain far more from this casual contact than if they only met them on the formal footing of host and guest at occasional nursery tea-parties.

Even if such sociable walks are not often possible, there are many ways of giving point and interest to more solitary excursions. This will not only improve matters for the child, but for the grown-up too, for there is nothing more trying than struggling along with a pram in one hand a bored and peevish toddler dragging at the other.

Feeding the Birds and other Creatures

In most large towns there are parks where children can enjoy the time-honoured treat of feeding ducks. Or, if there are no ducks, there may be squirrels, or pigeons, or at any rate sparrows. But half the fun of going out to feed them lies in saving up the stale bread first,

breaking it into pieces, stuffing it carefully into a paper bag, and clutching this tightly on the way out. So let the children make the preparations themselves.

Then, if other children are coming to tea, the hosts should be allowed to go to the cake-shop and choose the cakes. If they are told that they can help to make the toast when they get back, the walk home will be as thrilling as the one to the shop.

The Joys of Collecting

At some stage, usually from four or five onwards, every child has the collecting fever—and, as almost anything will do to collect, town children can enjoy this as much as country ones. Skeleton leaves, acorns and acorn cups, chestnuts, twigs and seed pods, or merely white stones—every town garden, park or common provides this sort of material. And in summer, picking flowers—even dandelions and daisies—is an unending delight.

Games for Town Walks

For older children, or those who cannot reach open spaces, a little more effort is required from the grown-up, but there are plenty of simple games which will make the most humdrum walk exciting. There is a very good observation game for a day which is not too cold: let the children look at a shop window on the way out and on the way back see who can remember the greatest number of things displayed there. And of course there is the old favourite, 'I spy with my little eye something beginning with . . .', while even very young children will enjoy trying to see things first: a horse, a tram, a green roof, an almond tree in flower.

Going Errands

Every child loves posting letters, or taking notes round to houses and dropping them through the letter box. Whenever you can, send your note by hand, or give it to the child to post. He will never forget—he will enjoy the responsibility too much.

Or, *pace* all social workers, give the child a penny occasionally for some special pavement artist or musician. In these and other ways he will learn to be useful, helpful and generous, at an age when the natural tendency is towards self-centredness.

The Country Child

Country children, of course, ought to delight in and learn from every walk they take. All that is needed is a little intelligent co-operation from the grown-up. Children will enjoy finding the first pussy-willow, hazel catkins or early leaves. Ponds make splendid objectives, especially in the spring. There is the thrill of collecting frog spawn and watching its growth into first tadpole and then frog, and children will easily learn to provide the right food and



Picking Flowers

environment for each stage of development.

Walks, in fact, for either town or country children, can be of absorbing interest and of real educational value. If they are well planned, each walk will have a definite objective—the pond, the park, the shops. Or else the children will set out to find some particular thing—more stones or moss or daisies, or a new pillar box. The intelligent grown-up will see that the child's powers of observation are heightened, and his knowledge of and interest in the outside world increased. The child who is busy because he is helping to post letters, to shop, to carry

small parcels, or who is constantly on the look out for horses, cars, trees and flowers, is never bored, and, what is more, his character as well as his body is growing happily and healthily all the time.

PUNISHMENT

IAN D. SUTTIE

THERE is no subject that awakens more prejudice than punishment. The person who has accepted it in youth feels that punishment has made him the glorious creature that he is; the person who has rejected it takes the side of the punished and is determined not to inflict it. The person of violent passions desires to retaliate on the evildoer, and the person who has a psycho-sexual strain of cruelty in his nature finds always reasons why punishment—and above all, corporal punishment—should be upheld.

From time to time a spate of letters appears in the papers advocating flogging in prisons, schools and the family. A considerable proportion of the signatories port military titles, but nearly all seem to assume that some general rule of punishment ought to hold good for wrongdoers as a class. Some fixed proportion between so much wrongdoing and so much retaliation! The debate has been raised to a more serious plane by Dr. Moodie and Dr. Shrubsall of the London County Council. The latter doctor is reported to have said in regard to children's biting that the

mother of the child should bite it back again. Dr. Moodie, though not advocating such methods, has also pronounced in a general way in favour of punishment, and it seems important that these contributions to the problem should be acknowledged.

How Does Punishment Affect the Child?

The first point that ought to be made clear is how punishment takes effect, and it would seem that all its advocates assume that it cures the subject by making him afraid to do wrong again. The pain is supposed to be associated with the wrongdoing and gradually to build up a prudent motive, not to repeat the offence. Now, this sort of experience of punishment is undoubtedly a very effective influence in moulding our conduct in everyday life. We learn from our fellows that certain forms of conduct simply do not pay, and we abandon those methods of trying to get what we want. This, however, leads at best to a sort of moral feeling based upon 'Honesty is the best Policy'. People who are honest from policy or controlled from

fear are liable to reverse the policy when an opportunity offers, and to lose control when (a) it seems safe to do so, or (b) when they are so angry that they do not care for consequences.

In fact, *real* moral behaviour and good feeling has no association with conscious fear or prudential motives of any kind. Nevertheless, we can concede to the advocates of punishment that the customs of good fellowship are learnt in the rough and tumble of school life, though we maintain that even here the moral factor of disapproval is obviously more important than the material discomfort that the punishment involves. Moral imbecility is the character which results from a mere selfish avoidance of danger—punishment included.

Punishment in Early Childhood

When we consider the early training of the child, however, we find the punishment assumes an entirely different aspect. Here, the actual pain inflicted may be relatively trivial, and the efficacy of the punishment rests almost entirely on its capacity to express genuine disapproval by a person who is loved by the child or of permanent importance to him. Obviously this punishment is somewhat different from that given by schoolmasters and other more or less casual authorities. School punishment may be physically severe, yet it follows bad conduct almost as automatically as a burn follows playing with fire, and is therefore largely dispassionate. Moreover, as I say, the schoolmaster is not the centre of the child's love-life, as the parents are. To compare punishment by the mother with retaliation by playmates or with the consequences of rashness or clumsiness, is to show a total failure to grasp the psychological meaning of punishment. It displays a blindness for all moral issues whatsoever. Any advice based upon such

a view of human nature should be utterly disregarded by anyone who believes that the love relationship between the punisher and punished makes some difference to the unpleasantness of the operation. Thus, if a child bites a casual playmate and is bitten back, it learns that being bitten is unpleasant and that unpleasantness is apt to recoil on one's own head—a useful lesson. If it is mocked or teased as a biter, suffers far more severely. But if a child is bitten by its mother it may well feel that the bottom has dropped out of its universe. Quite young infants do occasionally entertain fears of being eaten. The thrill of 'bear stories' bears witness to this. Even with older boys and girls cannibals are sensational. For the infant, the mother is the immemorial protector. If the mother bites, who shall protect?

Preserving a Sense of Security

We must therefore consider the child's total situation, and the importance of preserving for it a certain sense of security. Dr. Moodie strongly inveighs against such threats as 'Mother will not love you', but punishment of the kind that Dr. Shrubsole is reported to have advocated would for many children be far more conclusive evidence than words. The child that is not loved is not only utterly unsafe but it is also, in its own eyes, utterly unlovable. Its whole confidence in life and hope for the future may have been permanently shaken; and we have to consider whether the attainment of poetic justice and the prompt correction of a naughty habit is worth such a violent upsetting of the child's confidence in itself and others. We have at any rate to realize that the problem has its complexities, that fixed rules are futile, and that in punishment, as in war (according to Napoleon), 'the moral is to the physical as four is to one'.

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THE PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP

MARIA B. TE WATER

HUMAN relationships make or mar our lives. They affect us in our homes with our parents, children and friends, and in business life with our everyday associates. Yet many people take these relationships for granted and do not stop to think what is at the bottom of them. We forget that every contact with a fellow human-being gives rise in us to an attitude, and that from this attitude, reinforced at subsequent meetings, our relationship with that particular person will develop.

Because of the physical bond, we accept the fact that there is a definite relationship between parent and child. Too many of us expect that relationship to be a harmonious one because of its intimate beginnings. In reality, however, this relationship, like all others, develops as the result of *experience*, emotional, mental and social.

In dealing with difficult behaviour of any kind in a child, the psychiatrist or psychologist must understand clearly what factors are affecting the relationship between him and his parents. An adequate solution will not only remove the particular behaviour problem on which the parent is seeking advice, but will also prevent the occurrence of other difficulties later.

I am not going to discuss the various types of behaviour problems, but I should like to insist upon the real importance of the relationship between parent and child and show how intimately it is connected with the various difficulties that parents have with their children. For clarity's sake, I propose to deal separately with the physical, emotional, mental and social attitudes between parents and children.

The Physical Bond

In the first place the relationship between parent and child has a certain definite physical

meaning. It is a bond established through the germ-plasm of the two parents, from which the child is developed. Certain physical characteristics definitely relate the child to one man and one woman who are termed its father and mother. Children of the same father and mother can vary very much in regard to their physical, mental and emotional make-up, but they have this one primary bond in common.

Most parents to-day try to care for all the weak spots in the physical make-up of the child. Weak hearts, weak lungs, weak eyes, deformed legs and arms receive attention. Mothers will walk miles to take their little children to a physician to obtain the necessary help. They are up against something they can see, something that they know will handicap the child. Yet even in regard to his physical health it is difficult to get parents to realize the importance of those factors which cannot be seen with the naked eye, but which affect profoundly not only his physical, but also his mental and emotional health, and, as he grows older, his usefulness to society.

We all know that the child does not only need food, sleep and clothes. There are certain habits of eating and sleeping and the care of his belongings that are almost more important than the actual things themselves. This is to say that parents must not only supply their children with the necessities of life, but must also teach them how to make the best use of these necessities. The following case will, I think, make my point clear.

Tom, aged 5, was brought to my clinic because he did not want to eat his food and was always quarrelling with his sister over his toys.

Tom's mother told me that she had two children, Tom, aged 5 and Nell, aged 7. She did not wish to have any more, because she and

her husband felt that they could not afford to give a really good education to a larger family. The father was in a good financial position and provided a very comfortable home.

Tom had never been particularly sturdy, although he had not had any serious illness. A physical examination showed that he was too thin and inclined to be restless. Organically there was nothing wrong. When inquiry was made with regard to his eating and sleeping, it was apparent that he not only chose what he was going to eat, but also managed to decide when that eating should be. He contrived to eat very little at meal times, because he did not like the food, and to obtain cakes or chocolates about an hour later, because he was *so* hungry. He went to bed any time between 6 and 7-30. His mother never called him in the morning, but let him wake of his own accord, and his hours of retiring depended equally on his own whim.

Tom had never been taught to care for his toys. He left them lying about where they would be trodden on and broken or lost in the garden or spoilt by the rain. If he wanted to play with any of Nell's toys he would go and help himself, and treat her toys in the same casual way, with the result that there was a great deal of quarrelling between the two children. Nell, who was a great favourite with her father, soon found he was a good ally in her battles, with the result that Tom had several very severe scoldings and even whippings from the father, and many arguments arose between the parents. These arguments were slowly but surely building up a wall between them, not only in regard to this boy but also in regard to the little girl, Nell.

Until Tom was a year old it appeared that the parents had been working together in the training of their children. But when Tom was old enough to indicate by the things he was doing that he was different from the girl, difficulties began to arise and these difficulties were clearly to be seen in this thin, over-active boy of five.

It was therefore necessary to show the parents the importance of correct habit-training. Mutual co-operation on behalf of their children brought about a quiet, harmonious atmosphere in which the children could make the best use of the advantages of their home.

The Emotional Bond

Secondly there is the emotional bond which is characteristic of this relationship. Again and again one hears a parent emphasizing the *my* in 'my son', 'my daughter', my 'child'. The simplest expression of this emotional bond is in the love between parents and child. This usually means the love the parent has for the child, and does not necessarily include the love the child has for the parent.

In the case of the mother there has been a period during which she has been expecting the birth of her child; she has looked forward to having the new baby or has at least learned to accept its coming as inevitable.

With the child, however, things are different. It is only some time after his birth that he begins to recognize in the woman that feeds and cares for him his mother, in the woman that loves and plays with him the friend and confidante of his early years. In short, the parent may love a child from the beginning, but the child has to *learn* to love the parent; his love is built up upon the response he gets to his crying, to his playfulness, to his attempts to gain attention; upon the recognition he receives later when he begins to do things. The child's love is closely linked with the feeling that he 'belongs', which grows within him as an outcome of the response and recognition that he has been given, daily, hourly, throughout his young life by his parents. This feeling of security and love is further enhanced by the new and varied experiences that he has in the life of the home.

The Mental Bond

Later, as a child grows older, a certain mental bond is established. He learns from his parents, he talks to them about things, and as his development proceeds the parents in turn are either satisfied or dissatisfied with this development, and show their attitude to the child either by being proud of him and praising him accordingly, or by continually wishing he were 'different'.

Again and again one hears parents say 'She is so slow in learning to do things; she forgets so easily', or 'She concentrates so little; her mind flies from one thing to another and everything



Story Time—the Nursery School attached to Nebraska University

is left half done'. This mental bond has an effect on the emotional bond discussed above. How can the child who is thought to be stupid, and a disappointment to her parents feel secure and happy?

Edward, aged 9, was brought to the clinic because his mother thought he was so slow at learning. In fact she looked upon him as the fool of the family because he did not learn as quickly as his two elder brothers. Edward was a nicely dressed little boy, very diffident in his approach to a stranger; he sat very quietly on a chair and was afraid to talk lest he should say the wrong thing. Physically, he was several pounds under weight.

After a very short talk it was evident that Edward was no fool. A psychological test indicated that he was of definitely superior intelligence, and yet he was unable to do any satisfactory school work. When a test was made of his two brothers they both turned out to belong to that classification known as 'very superior', and here was the real cause of the difficulty. For in

comparison with his very clever brothers he was slow and dull, and his parents were getting into the habit of making excuses for his slowness to their friends. Their continual comparison with the two older boys was making him feel very stupid and dull and afraid to do or say things lest he be further criticized.

The Social Bond

And lastly there is the social bond. The parent who is proud and satisfied with a child subjects him to very different experiences from those enjoyed by children in the same family of whom she is less proud.

In the case mentioned above the two older boys were being taken here, there and everywhere, because they would understand and appreciate what they saw. Things were discussed with them because their answers were so interesting. But Edward was always pushed somewhat aside, for the parents did not wish to accentuate the fact that they had what they thought a dull child. Edward lacked the self-

assurance, bright activity, and ease of manner of the two older boys, and because of this he was more and more a disappointment to his parents. It was quite easy to see that the parent-child relationship that was being built up was not a satisfactory one as far as Edward was concerned, in short it was destructive.

From this brief account, I hope it may be seen that the relationship between parents and children is largely within the *conscious* control of the parents, and that it is essential that this relationship should be a serene and constructive one if the children are to learn to get the best out of life.

Next month, Dr. Te Water will contribute a second article dealing with the need to teach children to love, the importance of co-operation between both parents and the harmful effects of unhappy relationships.

POINTS FOR PARENTS TO REMEMBER

1. A happy relationship with your children is essential if they are to develop satisfactorily. But do not take it for granted that a happy relationship follows automatically from parenthood.
2. It is in your own power to make your relationship a happy and constructive one or an unhappy and destructive one.
3. Besides the irrevocable biological bond between you and your child there are emotional, mental and social bonds which are equally important.
4. The emotional bond between parent and child depends not only on the parents' love for the child, but also on the child's love for the parent. The child has to *learn* to love the parents, and his feeling for them will depend largely on their ability to give *him* a feeling of security and love.
5. The mental bond is forged later, and this again will depend on the parents' attitude, on their readiness to listen to the child, their interest and pride in him, or on their lack of interest and dissatisfaction with his progress.
6. The social bond will depend on the kind of experience the child undergoes in his home. His ability to make friends, his behaviour with other people, his outlook on life, will largely depend on his parents' attitude to him. If they keep him either too much in the limelight or too much in the shade, he will tend to be either over-confident or over-diffident. If their attitude is the right one, and he feels secure and appreciated, he will tend to develop happily and to be friendly and sociable.
7. If you have difficulties with your child, consider first your attitude to him, and his attitude to you, and make sure that the relationship is really a happy and constructive one.

ON BRINGING UP CHILDREN

An
Interview
with



MISS
HILDA
VAUGHAN

MISS HILDA VAUGHAN, author of *The Soldier and the Gentlewoman*, is in private life the wife of Mr. Charles Morgan, whose novel, *The Fountain*, has been in everyone's hands. She is a busy and sociable woman and her telephone is one of the hardest worked in London. Yet it is just because of this that she believes it possible to be the sort of mother her two children need. Shirley, the elder, is eight, and Roger is six.

'We can't, unfortunately, have big families nowadays,' said Miss Vaughan, 'but failing a large family, I think that every mother should have an interest outside her domestic round. The mother whose attention is entirely concentrated on one child is probably one of the greatest psychological dangers that child can have. Single-eyed devotion puts everything out of focus.'

Love—But not Limelight

'That does not mean, of course, that you should not love your children. A child needs a very great deal of affection, but it should not be

perpetually in the limelight of attention. The over-anxious and worried mother who has no occupation, not much to do at home and not enough children, fusses, worries, panics and spoils.

'It's very easy to be over-anxious. I know what difficulties one can make for oneself. When I had my first baby, I meticulously read up all the most modern theories, I put myself in the clutches of several specialists and I employed a series of theoretical nurses. That baby's upbringing was governed by the letter of the law, and looking back, I can see now that I lost sight of the spirit. A child can't have too much love, at all times, or too great care when it is ill; but it can be made cross and delicate by too many good intentions. Too many regulations, too much theory, make a harassed and unhappy mother, and, in consequence, a harassed and unhappy child.'

Start Right With Your Child

'If a baby is continuously panicked in its first year of life, it will be very difficult to make up to

it afterwards for the calm and natural happiness missed in those important months when it is assailed by its first and most lasting impressions.

'The mood in which you start with a baby is very important. If you want the relationship to be a happy one, you must start making it so before the child is born. If you dread having your baby, for instance, it starts its life with a handicap. It's essential that the baby should be loved and wanted from the very beginning, and I am sure that the more naturally women bear their babies and the less interference there is at birth the better it is, psychologically, for both mother and child. You can't expect to love a child normally unless you bear it normally, and many modern mothers know what it is to feel guiltily aware of not loving a child enough. And so, throughout that child's life, they try desperately to make it up. Such conscientious attentions never deceive the child. The whole relationship becomes artificial; the child is unhappy and therefore naughty; then there arises the temptation to punish it. . . . And about punishments. . . .'

Avoid Punishments . . . And Don't Coerce

'About punishments,' said Mr. Charles Morgan who had come quietly in to join the discussion, 'personally I don't believe in beatings. Anyhow, in this matter, I believe in equal rights for men and women. No one can justify in my mind the beating of a small boy unless they are prepared to justify the beating of a small girl in the same circumstances. And' he added, 'people who beat should realize that what may be merely physical discomfort for one child may be imaginative torture for another.'

'I do agree,' said Miss Vaughan. 'But even if you never beat and hardly ever punish, I think you can still do endless harm by subjecting a child to the full impact of an adult personality, by forcing it to accept and swallow whole every idea and prejudice of your own. And that is why I do so emphatically maintain that no one should have children or run a nursery unless they have other interests which will take up a good deal of their attention too.'

THE SMALL CHILD—HIS GROWTH AND ADJUSTMENT IN A NURSERY SCHOOL

AGATHA H. BOWLEY

IN ENGLAND, the twentieth century has seen a change in the structure of the family. The prolonged economic depression has affected the professional and middle classes as well as others. Parents cannot afford so much house room nor so many children. Again, many women are loth to give up their careers or their outside interests when they marry. This may be partly due to economic reasons and partly to the desire to preserve their hard won independence. Consequently there arises the problem of the only child, of providing contemporary companionship where there are wide discrepancies between the ages of brothers and sisters, of providing play space and suitable care for the children while parents are out.

The Role of the Nursery School

These problems can be met by the Nursery School, and this article describes the work of one particular nursery class, attached to a private school and open each day from nine to twelve. The class is a small one, and the children are all between three and five years of age. The parents are intelligent and capable, the children's homes are both hygienic and cultured; these children do not lack for food or clothes or toys or even gardens. But from a psychological standpoint there is much evidence that their lives can be enriched and their personalities more fully developed by their introduction into a Nursery Group soon after they are two.

Weaning, we are told, should begin as early as three months, and the process should

continue until the child has reached his complete development and independence. This is where the Nursery School or Group can help, for here the child is introduced into a small group of little people of much the same age and with similar interests. He is provided with a wealth of material suitable for the successive stages of experimental, manipulative, constructive, creative and dramatic play. There are kindly adults who keep in the background, but who are available when necessary for advice or protection.

First Steps to Independence

Play and work merge into each other and the way is paved for a further step—into kindergarten—not 'creeping like a snail unwillingly to school', but as the next glorious adventure.

The first step out of the family into the Nursery Group is sometimes fraught with difficulties. Most of the children have mental ages much in advance of their chronological years. Thus a two-year-old may have an emotional and mental development equivalent to that of an average four-year-old, but it is difficult for many parents to realize that independence of thought grows with independence of movement, and they continue to cherish the idea of 'baby'. Moreover, in many cases, the children prefer to take the secure and easy attitude of dependence, and so growing up is made more difficult later on. But when the small person comes to a Nursery School, instead of being the centre of attention, he finds that he is only one of many—that if he wants to get out into the garden quickly, he must pull on his own goshes—that he has to share the privilege of beating the drum—that he has to take turns on the swing. Anxious parents often lavish excessive care and protection on their offspring. But

at school such children find to their delight that they may dabble with paint, pummel clay and sift sand. They may cut with scissors, and hammer nails without constant admonitions to 'take care'; with an extra ounce of courage they find that they can climb ladders, balance on planks or jump off steps.

Self Expression

The aims of the Nursery Group may be described briefly as the self-development and self-discipline of the child. Restrictions are imposed on noisy, rough and hurting games; sharing, taking turns, and the care of property are encouraged; and a good deal of habit training on these lines is found necessary. But freedom of

choice in materials is essential. Self expression is possible in paint and pencil, clay and sand, music and drama. After a short time in a nursery class, a three-year-old should know what he wants to do, find the necessary tools, execute it and if necessary co-operate with the others in carrying out a plan.



Lunch Time in the Romany Nursery School

In time, he begins to lose his inhibitions and his gross self-centredness, and gains freedom and self control. Energy, libido—call it what you will—needs outlets. It is better to hit a nail than your sister—to relieve conflicts by playing pirates with a twig for a gun, or mothers and fathers with a teddy bear to spank; to express fantasies in the form of the muffin man with his bell or as the spider who frightens little Miss Muffet.

Companionship

The social development of these children is rapid. The only child and the child with much older brothers and sisters soon discover the most acceptable way of obtaining the companionship they crave. Of course, the play of love

and hate is variable and freely expressed. There are many minor emotional crises when a very popular small boy is off with the old love and on with the new. But though emotional moods at this age are often intense, they are short lived and their violent expression is perhaps due to an insufficient knowledge of the finer shades of meaning.

The Role of the Adult

In general, the place of the adult is in the background. But occasionally the grown up in charge will introduce models. For instance, when the adult made clay plates, the children began to make the sausages and plum puddings to put on them; if the adult showed how a paper book could be made, the children would begin to cut out and paste in pictures. Sometimes the children cannot express themselves at first; they have to be shown how flowers grow to music, or that ponies must run faster than elephants. But soon they find their own way of being flowers or trees, birds or animals to music. They reach a greater freedom of expression; they paint rainbows with their own mixture of colours, make clay teddy bears from their own designs, build great edifices, garages,

tunnels, boats with gang-planks and look-out towers.

Artificially stimulated activities generally fail, but stories and music which suit the season and the occasion are much appreciated and are sometimes carried out in play afterwards.

Very little speech training is necessary. Most of the children find little difficulty in stating their opinions about everything in general. There is no need for the staff to correct errors in pronunciation. When a four year old declares loudly: 'I rode an effalump in the Zoo', there are such cries of derision that the fatal word is seldom mispronounced again.

Above all, we find a delightful solidarity growing up; the children begin to think of themselves as parts of a whole. Absentees are always missed and greeted effusively on their return. In fact, the child who joins a group of this type makes friends, learns to co-operate with others, tends to lose his self-centredness, finds his own means of self expression. There is no doubt that the Nursery School or Group can be of the greatest value in helping him to grow up towards independence and to develop his personality happily and satisfactorily.

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THE PARENT-CHILD

RELATIONSHIP

Maria B. Te Water

PARENTS AND CHILDREN

SUPPLEMENT TO "THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL"

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THE PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP—II

MARIA B. TE WATER

(In her last article Dr. Te Water dealt with the physical, mental, emotional and social bonds between parents and children.)

It is easy to talk of the physical, mental, emotional and social bonds in the parent-child relationship without any real understanding of their value. These bonds can be compared to the strands in a rope, for it is they that give strength and durability to the relationship between parent and child. But it is not easy to see how these bonds are forged. One thing, however, is quite clear: both parent and child are affected by each experience that takes place between them.

Attitudes—How they are developed

Every activity that a parent and child share is a shared experience. In this sense experience is *doing*, and everything that is *done* results in a feeling of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. If we are satisfied, we wish to repeat that particular action: if we are not, we desire to avoid it. In other words, we react with a certain amount of feeling to everything that we do, and this feeling determines our wish to repeat that activity or not. If we wish to repeat the particular action again and again, we can safely say that an attitude is being developed towards it. An attitude towards any person or thing is indicated by our actions towards that person or thing. For instance, if on the first time we meet a person we receive an unpleasant impression, we are inclined to avoid that person because we say we do not like him. If this same impression is repeated each time we meet him, our attitude becomes definitely unfriendly. We avoid meeting that person or, if we do come across him, our whole social relationship with him is quite different from that with men or women towards whom our attitude is friendly.

The child who draws, however badly, and

finds that it gives pleasure to his parents, is encouraged thereby to go on drawing. If his attempts to please are very successful, we shall see a definite attitude towards drawing develop in the child.

Attitudes are very important, since an attitude is always followed by action of some kind, even if this action is only a decision not to act at all. In the case of a grown-up person we may call this decision not to act caution; very often in the case of the child it will be called disobedience or neglect of duty or inattention.

Building up Relationships

Attitudes are being developed in the child almost from birth. One can almost call them habits of action, habits of doing things or ways of doing things. There are hundreds of little things that each child does every day, and hundreds of corresponding attitudes are being developed—attitudes towards food, sleep, toys, playing, walking, talking, washing, obedience, friendliness, sympathy, love, religion—in the formation of which every member of the family plays a part. These attitudes are a force in child training; they give colour to the home and human relationships; they are creative forces in the life of every human being. These attitudes are the basis of all human interaction and human relationships, and yet parents are inclined to be careless about the experiences to which they subject their children daily and hourly from birth to maturity. They do not realize that the attitudes that they have developed in their children are the basis of the relationship that they are shaping between themselves and the child.

Many parents think they can be friends with

*Adventure*

their children without realizing that even between parent and child a friendly relationship is built up in exactly the same way as a relationship with any human being we meet. But in this particular relationship the child is at a disadvantage; he is inexperienced, undeveloped and immature physically and mentally. The parent, however, is more experienced, is older and has power over the young child and can, therefore, subject him to experiences. Unless the parent realizes what the reaction of the child to these experiences will be, it is possible for him to develop in the child an attitude very different from that which he wishes to establish.

Mary, aged 12, was taken to a clinic because she was quiet, kept her thoughts to herself and did not discuss matters with her parents. The mother in her statement said: 'That worries me very much because I do feel that the parents should be the child's best friends'.

Mary had always had a governess who saw to it that she did things, but had never given her any friendly encouragement to talk about the things she wanted to do. She often reprimanded her for mistakes that she made, without explaining to her how these mistakes spoilt the work that she was doing. Mary came, slowly but surely, to the conclusion that everything she did was either approved or disapproved of by adults according to their moods. Her father was

a very busy man and seldom devoted any time to talking to Mary; her mother had always been quite sure that children should be seen and not heard, and had seldom during the last five years spent any time with her. Now during adolescence she suddenly desired her friendship.

This mother did not realize that to build up the friendship with her daughter it was necessary to have daily friendly experiences that were satisfying to both, so that an attitude of friendliness, co-operation and understanding might be developed in dealing with daily problems as they affected the life of this child.

It was suggested to her that she should be sure to spend some time with the child each day so that she and her child could have various happy experiences together—experiences which might be as simple as a walk round the garden, but which were none the less essential. But the mother said: 'Oh, I am sure that would undermine my authority. What I want is friendship without familiarity'. It was not until this mother understood that there was a great difference between familiarity and comradeship that it was possible to get her co-operation.

Two years later she said: 'I wonder if I shall ever make up those five years that I lost, for I found that it did not only mean that I had to bring about a real feeling of friendliness and friendship, but that I had actually to remove from the mind of my child a cold hard attitude that was making her lack sympathy and understanding with people round her'.

Both Parents Influence the Child

It is important to realize that since there are two parents, both of them play a part in developing the child's attitudes. Both parents are subjecting him to certain definite kinds of experience. Sometimes we find that one parent is sympathetic and understanding, whilst the other is critical, aloof, and quick-tempered. The latter parent very often realizes that he or she does not get as much response from the child as the other. Instead of recognizing the reason for this failure, he or she tends to criticize the other parent for being too slack or too kind. This in turn leads to some disharmony between the parents and is one of the most prolific causes for divided loyalties in the home. In his endeavour to meet the demands of both parents, the child very

often comes to feel that he must placate this man and woman of whom he is afraid instead of learning to do things because they are right. The child develops certain insincerities of character, which may lead to all forms of maladjustment. Such children grow to be men and women whose opinions and actions are influenced by the last person who has spoken to them, whose word we doubt, whose sincerity we question and whose aim we deplore.

The Importance of Loving Wisely

To the child the development of the emotional bond is most important. The child must be taught to love just as it must be taught other things. But in forging this emotional bond the kind and quality of the parents' love is of the utmost importance. Is this love selfish or is it selfless? Is it a love that is expressing itself in an effort to understand, to guide and to develop the child in such a way that it can constructively take its place in the world when grown up? Is it a love that realizes that although the child belongs to the family it is really part of the whole human group? How will this love develop? Will it grow from simple expressions of affection, such as playing with and fondling the baby or praising the toddler, into the kind of love which will sympathize when the child begins to want to express itself in ways that the parents may not be able to understand? Is the quality of the parents' love such that their guardianship of their young children will develop into a firm bond of friendship between them at adolescence? Will they be able to develop the child's own unique possibilities without trying to force their own ideas upon him? Their love must enable them to face the fact that the parents belong to yesterday while the child belongs to to-morrow, for the parent sees life in terms of the past, but the child always sees the possibilities of the future.

Then again the parents' love must be reinforced by some understanding of child training, child development, child needs, child possibilities, so that it can decide the lines along which their relationship will develop. Parents who understand this will not encourage and smile at certain actions of the three- or four-year-old as being funny, or pert, or clever, when

they know that they will probably look upon such actions with disfavour later on and will attempt to suppress them by punishment when the child is six or seven. In other words they will have some plan along which their training will proceed. If certain definite training procedure is not established, it is as impossible to develop security in the love relationship between parent and child as it is for the young plant to grow and take root if pulled up out of the soil again and again for transplanting.

Lastly there is the importance of the parents' aim. Through the daily experiences, as I have indicated, attitudes are developed. Are these attitudes which teach the child the worthwhileness of the various phases of life, be it in regard to the parents, brothers and sisters, companions, work and play, animals, art, religion, or a desire to learn that which it does not know, to find a meaning in that which it does not understand? All these things are dependent upon the love aim of a parent.

Failures in Parent-Child Relationship

Whenever a parent has any particular difficulty in regard to the behaviour of any child it is



Picking Flowers

usually an indication that the relationship that has been established between the parent and the child is not satisfactory; it does not enable the parent to obtain the results for which he or she wishes. As a result of this failure the parents usually declare that the behaviour of the child is undesirable. He is disobedient, untrustful, destructive, quarrelsome. They do not realize that they are unable to obtain a different form of behaviour. In other words, they do not understand that this failure shows that the relationship that has been established is not a satisfactory one.

We must always look upon behaviour difficulties in children as difficulties in human relationships.

Again and again we find that one parent has no difficulty in obtaining the co-operation of the child; this parent will say that the child is obedient, whilst the other parent, finding that he is unable to obtain the co-operation of the child, says he is disobedient. One parent will have the confidence and friendship of the child, the other parent will find the child unsympathetic and maybe even antagonistic. So often we hear parents say: 'I have four children. With three of my children I have had no difficulty whatever, but with John it is quite different. He is stubborn, sullen and disobedient. He is so pig-headed that I don't know what to do with him. Now as I have had no difficulty with my other children, you cannot say that I have no understanding of child training'. It is often very difficult to get this type of parent to understand that John's sullenness, stubbornness and disobedience are attitudes which have developed as the result of the experiences to which he has been subjected by his parent.

We hear so much these days about individual differences in children, but we do not always realize that these differences subject the children to different experiences. The parents react to these differences in different ways, and they, therefore, subject the children to different types of experiences. This does not mean that the parent should have quite a different form of training for each child in the family, but it does mean that this training should be expressed differently to meet the needs of the different children.

Marjory, aged 10, was brought to the clinic because she had failed in her school work, was not interested in games, was jealous of her brother aged 11, was disobedient to her mother because she never listened to what she had been told to do, and was considered by her mother to be a very unsatisfactory type of child.

When I first spoke to Marjory and asked her about things she liked to do, she said: 'I don't know about anything I like doing', and she did not think there was anything she could do well. After two or three interviews, when Marjory felt really friendly, she had so many things that she wanted to do and there were so many things that she felt she did do but could do better, that she ended by suggesting that if she came to the office a little bit early the next day she could tidy up some of the books and maybe remove one or two ink stains from the desk!

When it was realized that Marjory was a little girl who was extremely sensitive and had very excellent mental abilities it became clear that the difficulty was elsewhere.

Two weeks later the mother arrived at the office one day unexpectedly and wanted to know what was happening to Marjory because she had actually left the house an hour before her appointment in order not to be late. It became quite evident that the mother was under the impression that the child was becoming too interested in coming to the clinic and was very loth to believe that Marjory had actually done so much there the day before. She was sure that at the clinic somebody stood over Marjory and made her work. She was very sceptical when she was told that it had taken nobody's time but Marjory's, that she was not supervised and that she had offered to come again and do some more work.

The mother belonged to the nagging type of woman, and she did not take sufficient time to show Marjory how to do things. Instead she frequently criticized her, and compared her with her brother who was quiet and obedient, but who had been trained 'to be a man and not to hang about the house'. The mother was continually complaining of headaches and she expected Marjory to carry more than her share of the household duties.

Actually, Marjory was really doing far more

than a little girl of her age should do in the house, but her inexperience and lack of training caused a good deal of the conflict with her mother, and this conflict made Marjory so sensitive that as soon as she thought that she was not giving satisfaction she started making mistakes.

Every parent should know what their children are, physically and mentally, for only by understanding them can parents be sure that they are subjecting their children to experiences which will help them to grow physically and mentally.

The experiences which parents share with each of their children forge a bond that can either be constructive and helpful or destructive and harmful in the training of any particular child. If the behaviour of a child is unsatisfactory, we must first examine the kind of experiences which are filling his life; and if we want to change his behaviour, we must change his experiences, removing those which prevent the establishment of attitudes that will help in training the child and substituting others which will encourage the right kind of attitudes and so promote the full constructive development of the parent-child relationship.

POINTS FOR PARENTS TO REMEMBER

1. A relationship consists of many attitudes: an attitude consists of many experiences.
2. In the parent-child relationship, every action counts: it is an experience which helps to form an attitude.
3. Every attitude either strengthens or weakens the relationship between you and your child.
4. Different mental and physical characteristics subject each child to different experiences. Different experiences give rise to different attitudes. Therefore, no two children are alike, and your relationship with each will be different.
5. Both parents are constantly developing attitudes to each other and to their children, and these attitudes affect the relationship between parents and children.
6. Children develop different attitudes if they are treated differently. Therefore, if you are not satisfied with your child's attitude to yourself or to others, alter the way you treat him.
7. It is possible for you to build up a relationship which will be responsible for the way in which your children behave, not only towards yourself but towards others.
8. If your love is wise and selfless, you will be able to build up an attitude of affection and confidence in your child: the relationship between you will be constructive and you will be able to help your child to develop his own particular gifts and qualities.



This illustration is reproduced from a lino cut designed by ten year old pupil at Maltman's Green. It was originally intended as a decoration for a spring report.

UNDERSTANDING THE CHILD

MARGARET LOWENFELD



BEHIND every child's failure lies the failure of a parent, and one of the most frequent causes of this tragedy is the gulf of misunderstanding between the child and the grown-up. If this gulf is to be bridged, we must learn to understand the child, and the beginning of all our difficulties lies in the fact that we so often look upon the child as a grown-up only smaller. But the difference between a child and a grown-up is not merely one of scale; the child's mind is completely different; it differs from ours in quality, in perception and in the way it works. If we are to understand children, we must know the structure of their minds, and this knowledge must be reinforced by imagination, insight, and a vivid memory of our own childhood.

The Child's World

In the first place, the world as it appears to the child is quite different from the world as it appears to an adult. A grown-up's world is made up of the things to which he attends; he has sufficient knowledge of his surroundings to enable him to choose, more or less deliberately, to what part of his world he will give his attention, and he remains comfortably oblivious of the rest. But the child has no knowledge of the world around him, and his approach to it is therefore quite different from that of a grown-up.

Yet in spite of this difference between the child's outlook and the adult's outlook, there are certain characteristics common to both; otherwise, there would be no point of contact between infancy and maturity. But their very similarities make us disastrously apt to overlook the differences between the mental processes of a child and those of an adult.

The child shares with us at least three definite characteristics. First, every human being tends to assume that everybody thinks and feels as he does. So does the child. If we see a person behaving oddly, we say to ourselves: 'There is someone who thinks and feels as I do. If I were in his place I should not behave like that. How odd'. But we entirely overlook the fact that the person is not feeling in the least as we do, and that therefore, his behaviour, which expresses his own particular feelings, is not odd. Secondly, we tend to be unaware of any thought or feeling that we have always had, because we have never had an opportunity of appreciating its opposite. This also is equally true of the child. We who have grown up through childhood, are aware of being children no longer; but the child is totally unaware

of being a child, and like ourselves he assumes that everybody thinks and feels as he does. He regards adults merely as larger editions of himself, and if he could express his idea of us in adult terms, he would explain that though we can do many things that he cannot, we are no more important and no wiser than he is. To his mind the only difference is that his behaviour is reasonable and ours is odd.

Thirdly, we all tend to project our unconscious emotions or feelings (especially if they are discreditable) upon the people about us. A bad tempered or jealous person is always convinced that the people around him are bad tempered or jealous. This tendency is so marked in children that we are often inclined to consider it a peculiarity of childhood, and consequently to overlook it in ourselves.

Characteristics of Childhood

These characteristics we share with the child, though we often fail to understand the way in which they work. But there are certain others which are peculiar to childhood, and because we have forgotten our own childhood, we do not recognize them.

The conviction of omnipotence is the first of these. To the adult, the baby is clearly a helpless creature, but the baby, unaware of its own helplessness, knows only that it can produce a cry which will make giants come and minister to its needs. As the child grows older, he has to relinquish this omnipotence and to accept limitations of his power. The feeling of omnipotence is exceedingly precious to him, and when he is faced with a loss of power, he struggles to retain it. Obviously, he is too small to keep it by force, so he resorts to strategy. It soon becomes clear that there are certain things by which the adult sets great store, but which he cannot compel the child to do: no grown-up can make a child eat or sleep or empty his bowels. The child therefore refuses to eat or to sleep and retains his fæces and his water within him. There are other causes for this kind of behaviour, but it is enough to note now how skilfully and successfully the child can make the entire household revolve round his meals, his acts of evacuation, his hours of going to sleep.

Secondly the child differs from the grown-up because the material available for the formation of ideas is exceedingly small—in fact, he relies on adults for most of it. But adults are apt to forget that many words, meanings and processes, which are familiar to them, are quite unknown to the child. They turn a switch or a tap, and the lights go up or water runs. They have some idea of the system of wires and pipes in the walls, and some conception of the chain of cause and effect which is set going when a switch is turned. But the child has not; the switch is to him the direct and magical cause of light, just as in his babyhood his cry was the direct cause which brought giants to his cot.

Then there is the question of size; from the child's

point of view adults and their equipment are disproportionately large. Many of the child's outbursts of temper are due to not being on a level with the thing which is trying him. None of us would be at our best if we had to crane our necks at an impossible angle to put our point of view before an opponent twice our size. Another characteristic of childhood which we often fail to appreciate is the element of constant change in the child himself and in his relation to his surroundings. To a growing child, nothing remains the same for more than a few months. Even material objects look different, while his position in the family group with its fluctuating permissions and prohibitions is always changing. Grown-ups expect him to understand that he is now too big to do one thing, but not big enough to do another, and they demand from him a constant readjustment of which they themselves would be incapable.

The Centre of the Child's World

Clearly then the world inhabited by the child is a very different place from the world an adult inhabits. And the centre of the child's world is himself and his feelings, which seem to him eternal. He does not know as the adult does that his feelings of happiness or pain or excitement will pass. Nor does he distinguish between his body and his mind; a pain in his body colours his whole outlook, and a mental pain re-acts at once on his body. Again, he does not distinguish between animate and inanimate objects; it has been proved that to a child motion means life; a running child, a rolling ball, a moving tram, the wind—all these are alive to the child in the same way, and grown-ups are only alive in the same way as the tram or the ball.

The Child's Scale of Values

In this shifting and changing world the child himself, at its centre is permanent; and the most consistent and lasting things about him are his own desires. What he desired yesterday, he desires to-day. What seemed good to eat, to feel, to play with, yesterday, seems good to-day. In trying to gratify these desires the child comes up not only against the barrier of circumstances—which he can generally understand, but also against the barrier of adult prohibitions which to him appear quite unintelligible. So many of the things which seem important to an adult do not matter to a child. The grown-up insists that clothes must be folded, doors must be closed quietly, hands must be washed—and the child has no natural desire to do any of these things. In fact, he would not care in the least if no one in his environment did them. Yet these regulations lay the foundation of good habits and manners which will be invaluable to the child when he is older, and therefore they must be enforced. But their performance can only be secured by inculcating a habit, or obtaining the child's goodwill, or by using that other weapon, the error of adult discipline and punishment, which so often marks the beginning of neurosis.

A child conforms to these adult regulations not

because he realizes the importance of what he is told to do, but because he has learnt by experience that disobedience produces adult displeasure which subsequently interferes with more important affairs of his own. When this association breaks down, or when an opposing influence is at work, the child will usually disobey. For instance, a child may behave well at nursery meals because he has learned that, if he does, the atmosphere in the nursery will be more favourable to the games he is planning—which are to him the really important things of life. But the same child may be unbearably tiresome at meals downstairs because he has found that he can score off his young sister and concentrate attention on himself without directly affecting the important things in the nursery. In any case, adult conceptions of good and bad are very perplexing for the child. It is impossible for him to discover any system in the way these terms are used. Certain things, which have no significance for the child, are pronounced good by the adult. But other things which seem supremely good to him—such as building a crane from very unsatisfactory material—are dismissed by the adults as mere play.

Energy and Naughtiness

The important thing about all problems of child-behaviour is that this behaviour is a manifestation of energy, and energy is in itself amoral. Although the child is so much smaller than the adult, he has about as much energy and emotion as the average grown-up. But whereas the grown-up has innumerable and varied outlets for his energy, the child has very few. The baby works it off by kicking and screaming, the six-year-old is never still for a moment, and as he grows older the child must somehow find activities which will work off his energy without earning the disapproval of surrounding grown-ups. There may come a time when all the activities sanctioned by parents are inadequate, and the imprisoned energy becomes so explosive that it is forcibly repressed by parents as hooliganism and naughtiness. But the force which is making the child so turbulent is a driving power which will be invaluable when he is grown up. It is the force which may put him at the top of any profession he chooses and to repress it instead of guiding it may have disastrous consequences. Nelson, for instance, was a noted robber of orchards, and Clive was sent to India because of his organized rowdyism at home. If we want our children to grow up to be men and



women of vigour and enterprise, there must be a stage when the raw material of these qualities is all we can see—and the raw material is this explosive and often destructive energy. Obviously, we cannot expect the child who possesses the energy which may make him conspicuously successful as an adult to be also a child who is never in mischief. Naughtiness, according to grown-ups, is a departure from their standards of good behaviour. The child may of course be doing something which grown-ups consider wrong and the child also accepts as wrong—lying or cheating perhaps. More often, he is merely disregarding adult regulations as to cleanliness or tidiness which he considers entirely unimportant. Or he may be making himself a nuisance—climbing over furniture or finding outlets for his energy in some way which causes discomfort to grown-ups. All these ways of behaving are described as naughtiness.

But modern parents are undertaking a very difficult task: they are trying to make the child, who has an immense store of energy, whose mind, scale of values and outlook on life are quite different from their own, conform to their own standards of behaviour. And these standards involve the achievement of cleanliness in the first year of life, the suppression of the instinct for cruelty, in earlier centuries per-

mitted to adult man, by the age of ten, and the acquisition, even earlier, of the ability to fit into a life which sets up barriers against all the primitive instincts and provides very few supplementary outlets for energy.

In mediæval times, such difficulties did not arise.

As far as we know there were many fewer neurotic children, largely because the accepted standards of culture and behaviour allowed many of the primitive instincts to have direct expression. Since machinery was unknown, ordinary life provided plenty of useful outlets for energy, for everyone was expected to take an active part in providing food and protection for the community. The problem of superabundant energy therefore solved

itself, much as it does to-day for the happy child in the country who can go where he likes and make as much noise as he wishes. But though modern conditions, especially for those who live in towns, offer very little help in solving these problems, modern psychology can give us understanding of the child and his actions. Once we understand the child, we can find a way of handling him that will help to overcome the difficulties which the general circumstances of life solved automatically in the past.



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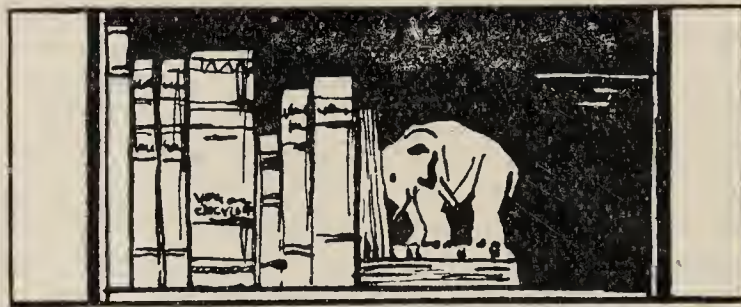
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A study in psychoanalysis which is remarkable for its simplicity and will be valuable to all who come into contact with children.

The Child in Home and School. Florence M. Surfleet. (Headley. 3s. 6d.)

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Mothercraft for Older Girls. Viney. (Faber & Faber 3s. 6d.)

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Parents and Children. R. Groves. (Lippincott & Co.)

A very valuable book, dealing with the problem of Parent-child relationships in considerable detail.

PARENTS AND CHILDREN

SUPPLEMENT TO "THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL"

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THE BACKWARD CHILD

CYRIL BURT

DURING the school age a problem which often causes anxiety to the parent is the child's backwardness in the ordinary educational subjects. Too often they think only of two possible causes: they fear that their child must be mentally deficient, or they leap to the conclusion that he is simply lazy. A few blame the teachers; the majority blame the child. The curious assumption that once inspired our classroom organization still seems accepted by the majority of parents, namely, that every child is born into the world with a normal ration of intelligence, and that if he does not come up to the ordinary standard, then not nature or heredity but some human being is at fault—possibly the schoolmaster, more probably the pupil.

What is Backwardness?

What, however, do we mean by backwardness? The child who is but a year below the level of his fellows can be reasonably dealt with by being left in a class which is one year below that which is normal for his age. If he is backward by two years or more, then the problem becomes serious. It is important, however, to realize that the standard which is accepted at one school may not be accepted at another. A child who comes from professional classes may seem a dunce as compared with his brothers, and two or three years backward when he goes to a preparatory school; yet had he come from a poorer district and attended an ordinary elementary school he might actually rank among the brightest of his age.

It must be realized, therefore, that normal ability differs considerably from one social class to another; and that between the definitely defective, on the one side, and the average lad, on the other, there lies every conceivable shade and gradation. This makes it a little difficult

to draw definite lines of demarcation, or to define the backward child in any precise terms. Let us, however, accept the suggestion put forward in the Board of Education's *Handbook for Teachers*, namely, that a child who is two or more years backward by the middle of his school career should be regarded as in need of special provision. With this definition as a basis, surveys of the whole school population from various areas show that, on an average, the backward amount to 10 per cent. One child in ten, therefore, is backward in this sense.

Now backwardness is only a symptom; and to rest content with palliating symptoms by a little extra pressure here, a little extra coaching there, is as disastrous in the school as it would be in the hospital. It is like sending a feverish patient into the snow in the hope of getting him cool. With mental disability as with physical, we must find and fight not symptoms but causes.

For the parent, therefore, the first question to be asked is this: What is making my child backward?

Poverty and Backwardness

Studies of actual cases reveal that innumerable causes may be at work—differing in different instances. Some years ago a geographical study was made of the incidence of backwardness in the various districts of London. From one area to another the proportion changed enormously. In the better districts, such as Hampstead, Lewisham, and Dulwich, the figure sank to less than 1 per cent. In the East End and the low-lying parts just south of the river, it rose to over 20 per cent. It was instructive to compare this educational map with Charles Booth's map showing the distribution of poverty in London. On setting the two side by side, a striking correspondence was

revealed. Where Charles Booth had blackened the streets to show the haunts of crime or tinted them blue to mark the hovels of the poor, there our map showed the highest proportion of backward and defective children. There can, therefore, be no doubt that poverty and backwardness are intimately associated.

But it would hardly be fair to conclude that poverty is an invariable cause. A bare smattering of history and biography is sufficient to refute that simple induction. Bunyan the tinker, Faraday the blacksmith's son, Burns, Cook and Giotto, all sons of peasants, d'Alembert, the foundling picked up one Christmas night on the steps of a Parisian church—these and many others rose to the loftiest intellectual eminence

from the lowliest social spheres. The slums of our big cities contain many geniuses, some of whom gain, more of whom merit but fail to gain, scholarships to secondary schools and universities. Stupidity, then, is not an inevitable result of poverty, though poverty is its commonest concomitant. To reveal how precisely the two interact, a minuter analysis is needed. Is it the lowest stocks that gravitate to the slums, and there perpetuate and even aggravate the bad environment that they find? Or is it the underfeeding and the over-crowding that devitalize the mind? And, if they devitalize some minds, how is it they leave others unimpaired?

Accordingly, to discover the more immediate causes, a number of cases of school backwardness have been intensively analyzed. An attempt has been made to discover which are the chief factors at work and how those factors operate.

The Causes: Complex and Varied

It appears at once that backwardness is a highly complex resultant, attributable to a variety and usually to a multiplicity of causes. It is this plurality of causes that stultifies the simple rough-and-ready remedies to which the parent or the teacher usually turns. It is not the last straw, it is the accumulation of straws, that breaks the camel's back. We must unload every one. Too often the first explanation to suggest itself is treated as the last word to be said. We snatch at a probable cause; we treat it as the only cause; we successfully remove that cause; and still the child remains backward. Then in despair we conclude he must be mentally deficient.

One day I was asked to examine a boy who had recently been promoted to the senior school at the age of eight. It was found that he was unable to read or to work the simplest sums in addition. At first it was thought that the cause was simply deafness. He was tested with the usual whispering tests; and it certainly appeared that occasionally his hearing was below normal. This, however, was chiefly due to the coughs and colds to



Concentration

which he was subject; and a few months' treatment seemed to remove the difficulty. But he still remained backward.

Presently an aunt appeared and described a feverish illness attended by delirium which the boy had had while staying in the country. The headmaster suspected brain fever; and, as the boy seemed delicate and now admitted occasional headaches, he was sent to an open-air class and put on milk and tonics. Head and health improved; but the boy's mind remained as dull as before. Now the mother came forward to say that there was insanity in the family; and it was suggested that the boy should be removed to a special school or institution as mentally defective. In this way he was brought to my notice.

A little psychological testing was sufficient to show quite clearly that in actual intelligence the boy was scarcely backward at all. He had, however, a poor auditory memory; that is to say, he did not easily remember things that he had merely heard in class. Apart from this his mental capacities were practically normal. A few further inquiries left little doubt that the original illness had been a mild form of scarlet fever. During the critical months when the boy should have been learning to read, the infection had kept him absent from school, and left not only his hearing but also his health impaired.

Here were a large number of factors which had to be dealt with. To begin with, the boy's mother was given advice on everyday problems of general hygiene with a view to improving the boy's physical fitness and particularly to dealing with his recurrent colds and coughs. Both teachers and parents were instructed to keep a vigilant watch for the variation which the boy showed in bodily and mental condition. In the classroom he was given a spell of individual treatment—reading lessons chiefly along the lines of the look-and-say method, extra drill in tables to supplement his bad memory, special



A Reading Group in an American School

exercises and games intended to arouse his interest in formal work and to enable him to see its bearing on practical and concrete problems. For collective work he was placed in the front row, so that his deafness and shyness would not be a handicap. His other slight nervous symptoms were dealt with along systematic lines; and for twelve months he was kept under unobtrusive supervision. He rapidly improved; and ultimately, at the age of $11\frac{1}{2}$, was doing well in Standard VI.

Physical Condition

In every case, a small intensive research of this kind is requisite to explore all the possible factors that are hindering the child's progress at school. The child's physical condition will be the first concern. Here as a rule it is found

that serious diseases such as pneumonia or rheumatic fever are, from the standpoint of educational progress, of comparatively minor importance. The ailments are generally of a much milder type such as the family physician will frequently overlook. There may be defects of the special senses—of hearing, of vision, of the muscle sense; and these again may be defects so slight as to be detected only by a specialist. Defects in movement may be equally important—squinting, stammering, left-handedness, or a general clumsiness of the neuromuscular apparatus.

Mental Difficulties

The physical drawbacks are seldom the only cause. Nearly always they co-operate with some underlying defect in the child's mentality. Here the application of standardized tests is of the greatest value. A mother who is dissatisfied with her child's progress may easily learn to apply simple tests of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and of general intelligence. For accurate results, a special training is undoubtedly necessary; but an observant parent may learn a good deal by trying over such tests with the child, perhaps in the form of a simple game.

It is important to distinguish a backwardness in general intelligence from a backwardness in acquired attainments. The former is due to an innate condition that can hardly be remedied. The latter may be due to something quite accidental, and therefore is, in theory at least, curable. A child, however, who is perfectly normal in general intelligence may suffer from a weakness in some specialized capacity—in memory, imagination, or the like. This is a far harder thing to discover, and usually needs the technical devices of a trained psychologist. But once more a parent with a background of psychological knowledge may make useful observations which will be of great help to the psychologist when he makes his first examination.

Difficulties of Temperament

Temperamental conditions are no less important. Intellectual progress does not depend entirely on intellectual capacity. Some children are temperamentally dull, unemotional and

apathetic. Nothing seems to arouse their interest or their energy. Others have too much energy and are over-excitabile. The most obvious are those demonstrative, unrepressed creatures, whose fidgetiness, restlessness, and general impulsive behaviour, give so much trouble in the home. Here patience, tolerance, and an understanding of the general psychology of children may be particularly helpful. Too much restraint will do more harm than good. Merely talking to the child is generally useless, punishment worse still; but over-indulgence is almost as dangerous, and the real need is for a treatment which should be firm, sympathetic, and above all consistent.

Perhaps the most difficult cases of all are those where the emotions are not outwardly displayed but inwardly repressed. On the surface the child may seem to be reserved and unemotional. Inwardly he may be highly sensitive, drifting slowly towards a nervous breakdown.

Laziness

Laziness is often a measure of self-protection. The lazy child should not be reproached for his indolence until some effort has been made to discover what makes him lazy. Often such children can best be dealt with by arousing natural interests which will give the work in the classroom a meaning and a significance outside the walls of the school. Games, hobbies, educative toys—all these may be carefully selected and arranged so as to form, not merely a change from the work in school, but a supplementary means of enlightenment which will reveal to the child the practical value of intellectual work for his ordinary everyday life.

Above all, it must be remembered that educational progress is not the only thing for which the child exists. The teacher naturally thinks first of the school and its duties; and therefore perhaps is professionally prone to regard the boy who fails in school as a failure all round. Sometimes the psychologist is compelled to call upon the parent not only to co-operate with the school but even at times to correct the narrowed view of life towards which the school is at times too liable.

In every case, however, it should be realized

that the machinery of the mind is as delicate and as complex as the machinery of a motor-car or an aeroplane. Mere commonsense may not be enough. Hence in serious cases the parent

should never hesitate to call in the advice of an expert specially trained in modern psychology and equipped with first-hand experience in the management of the problem child.

DESTRUCTIVENESS IN CHILDREN

MARGARET LOWENFELD

DESTRUCTIVENESS in children is one of the forms of wanting to know about things. This sounds odd, but it is true.

Children do not differentiate as we do between things and people. Teddy Bear is alive to them—just as alive as their parents. A rolling ball, because it moves, has to them the same sort of life as a dog which runs. The wind blows, the moon rides up the sky; and the child feels that they are alive as people are alive. They are mysterious; he would like to know what they are. We often confirm this idea: when a child cries, we say, to distract his attention, 'Poor chair. Tell the chair how sorry you are that you knocked it'. In fact we treat the chair as if it had feelings like ourselves; and the child himself constantly attributes feelings to things in this way. To him, the dolls and toys he loves always *feel* as if they were alive. Other things, clockwork toys, for instance, *behave* just as if they were alive; yet somehow he knows dimly that they are not. But some things, like flowers, that do not look alive to him, *are* alive, we tell him; and we scold him when he pulls them to pieces to see inside. This is all very puzzling for the child.

Destructiveness and Curiosity

A little boy of seven, called Gerald, was sent to a children's Clinic for destructiveness. He always pulled apart everything that was given to him. His mother was an eager gardener, and it exasperated her to find him tearing open the buds of her flowers just before they were ready to bloom. Another child of twelve, called Charlotte, would perpetually pull the edge of her skirt to pieces and pick holes in her stockings. At home, nothing was safe in her hands; she seemed to break whatever she picked up. Both were rather silent and secretive children and very difficult to get to know.

Lawyers say that in extracting information, the way a question is put is half the battle—but children do not even realize what it is they want to know. They cannot express the questions they most want to have answered; they are only aware that they are perplexed and puzzled. An intelligent child wants to know the reason for everything he sees round him. He can only apply to us for information; he wants to know clearly why we are living beings, how we came there and what makes us different from each other. He does not know how to ask, so he determines to find out. The mechanical toy intrigues him; it is so like life. How does it go? What makes it go? He wants to find out, but small hands are clumsy, and the toy comes to pieces. Then we say: 'Tommy, there you go again, breaking your toys before you've had them more than a day or two, and I can't afford to get you new ones'.

He has had a rebuff again. It does not really stop him; he still wants to know as much as ever. Sometimes he determines to ask and tries his best, but too often, an entirely untrue answer is given. Most children know when we are not telling the truth; it hurts them badly and throws them back on themselves. In desperation, they do what they can to satisfy their curiosity; they break open everything in sight, in the hope of finding a solution.

Telling Children the Truth

So many people still feel that they cannot be honest with children, but many facts about life which are complicated and difficult to us are simple and straightforward to the four or five-year-old. We must answer children's questions truthfully, for if we do not, sturdy children will try to explore for themselves; and exploration inevitably leads to destructiveness. The best way of dealing constructively with the destruc-



*Tearing open the buds of flowers just before they
were ready to bloom*

tive child is to start by giving an honest answer to his questions. Evil curiosity only arises when the truth is withheld. A small boy of my acquaintance, whose mother always answered his questions frankly developed into a delightful child, constructive in every way. His cousin, who had been punished for curiosity and rebelled against it, became the most violently destructive child in the neighbourhood.

When a child has started on this road, it is not easy to check him. Once we have spoken untruthfully about things that are important to him, he will not easily trust us again. This was the trouble with Gerald and Charlotte. When they had been carefully studied in the Clinic, we found that both children were possessed with the desire to know. But both had been denied knowledge. Through work with plasticine, clay and sand, they gradually played out their queries, and when we had truthfully answered their questions, the destructiveness disappeared and they both became normal, happy school children.

Curiosity is not the only reason for destruc-

tiveness in children; there are many others.

One day, a small boy called Teddy came to the Clinic. He broke everything he touched; he kicked the door-paint and chipped bits out of chairs; he broke all his toys, and when he helped in the house, things came apart in his hands. He did not want to be careful, and it was useless to scold or punish him. Some time afterwards, a little girl called Mary joined him at the Clinic. She was not only destructive but also violently rude. How well we all know that type of child; they are rude just when it is important for them to be polite; they tear up and spoil all the toys we give them and never seem content. Both children came from good homes and had been carefully brought up, and yet when they had been closely studied, we found a reason for their destructiveness, and this time it was not just curiosity.

The Value of Destructiveness

In itself, destructiveness is not necessarily a bad quality. In fact, many of us find ourselves shut in and unable to enjoy life just because we lack this power to destroy, and so are unable to keep pace with life. It is very important that we should be able to clear away at each stage the litter that the past leaves behind it. But many people find it difficult to embark on a new venture or even to start doing an old thing in a new way. These are the people in whom the destructive impulse is too weak; the pleasure in destruction and the freedom that destruction brings with it has been crushed out of them and they do not grow. Sometimes the impulse is not absolutely killed but merely driven underground. Instead of appearing on the surface it begins to sift through into everything so that in adult life the man or woman becomes a rebel, who is only happy when working against the established order. These people are rebellious merely for the sake of being rebels. And the destructive energy of the rebel is useful, but only when it is the preliminary to constructive work. This is also true of children.

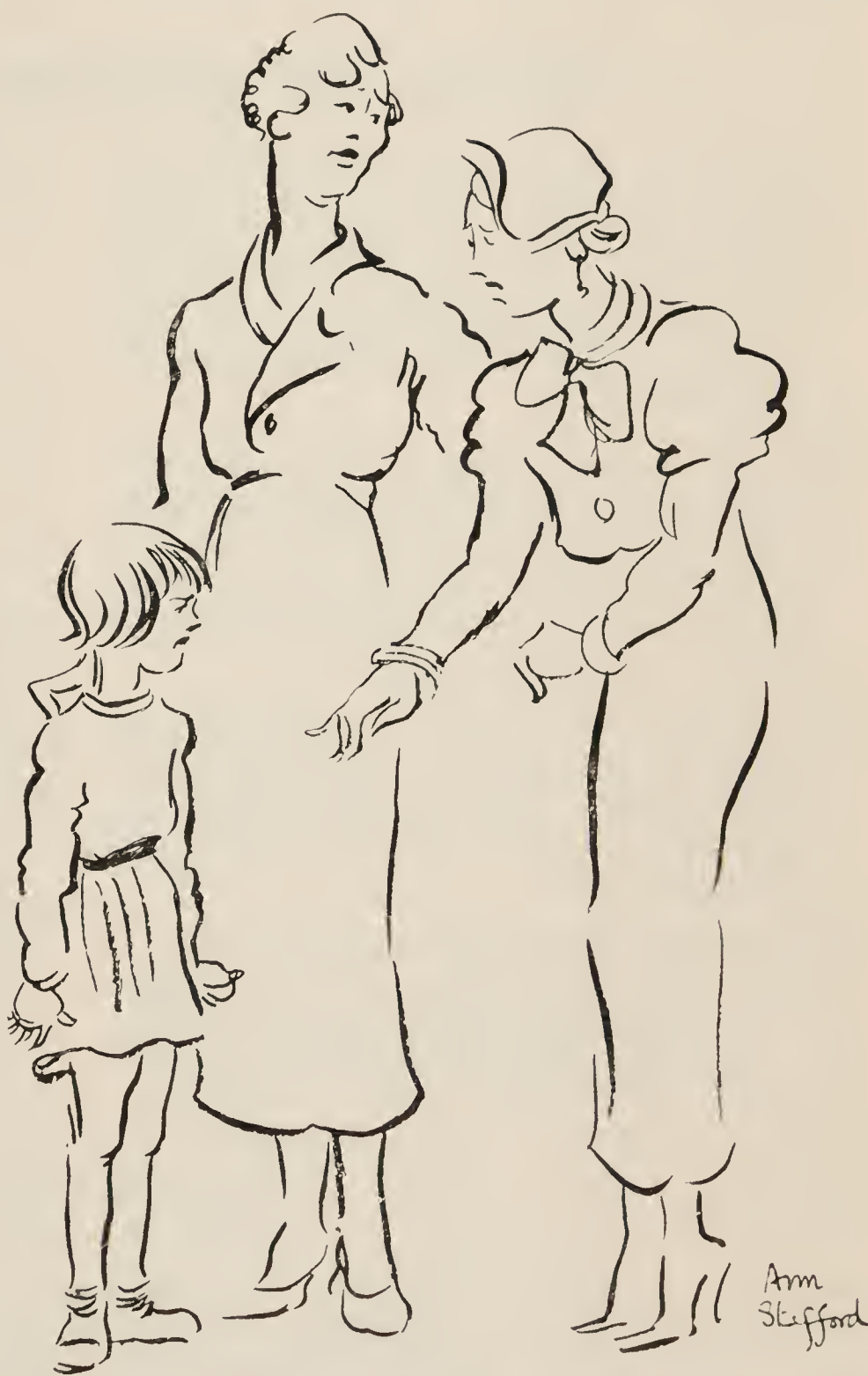
Guiding the Destructive Child

Since the impulse to destroy is not in itself harmful, a destructive child should never be punished. His desire is a sound one; make use of it and teach him what to do with it. There is generally only one way to get any impulse under control, and that is to give it free rein first, under suitable conditions. If a child wants to do something very much and is never allowed to do it, he will keep it in his mind long after—indeed all his life. There are many ways in which a child can indulge his joy in destroying with benefit to himself and without inconvenience to us. Plasticine, glitterwax, pieces of dough, can all be played with for hours, made into figures, pulled to pieces, pinched into very tiny pieces and then rolled together again. Scissors and paper are the next stage, and some corner of the room can always be found where the child can cut up to his heart's content. Breaking coal serves the older child, or tearing open parcels, ripping up newspaper for fire-lighting, and making bonfires in the garden. Give the elder boy firewood to chop, the elder girl all the unpicking you can find to do. Let her tear cotton into strips or dig up plants in the garden. There are many things that can be found in a house and garden to give outlet to the destructive impulse without the risk of any real damage.

This is what happened to Mary and Teddy. Teddy had become a rebel because his explosive energy and destructive desires had been given no outlet. Mary had been short-sighted and much laughed at for her clumsiness before its cause was realized. So she wanted to get her own back on life, to destroy everything within sight in order to console her wounded feelings. This sequence of events was not clear at first; it took some time to piece things together. In the meantime, both children were given many opportunities to hammer and break up as much as they liked. At first, the desire tended to get a little out of control,

but this phase was soon over, and then pulling things to pieces became a game, and a game in which, little by little, the real troubles behind the destructiveness came to light. Then constructiveness grew out of destructiveness; from cutting up for the sake of cutting up, they moved on to putting together the pieces they had cut up, and finally, they only cut up in order to put together something new.

Both are now happy, cheerful, school children. And with a little wise guidance, this transformation always takes place. Heads cut off figures from newspapers can be arranged



Children who are rude when they should be polite

into patterns; limbs can be made into new figures; pieces of wood chopped up and built again into new boxes. With wisdom, construction will always follow destruction, and the destructive child will turn, like these two, into a satisfactory school child.

It is so difficult to remember that the strength of the oak is in the acorn; that the energy, emotional force and potential qualities of the grown-up are in the small child. And the child's nature must be allowed to expand if he is to grow up into a vigorous and happy individual. Destructive and explosive energy are the raw materials of enterprise and initiative, and if we want our children to have these

qualities when they grow up, we must see that the early manifestations are not repressed.

It is so easy to force a child into a behaviour, too old for his years, which suits his adult surroundings. But it is not best for the child, and it is perhaps for our good and their future happiness that some of our children escape, break through all the rules we have made for them, and insist on being explosive and destructive in spite of all our efforts to control them. A love of destruction in small children should encourage us to look for a strong and vigorous character, and wisely guided, it can be the foundation of some of the most valuable qualities of adult life.

POINTS FOR PARENTS TO REMEMBER

1. Before you make up your mind that your child is backward, be sure that you are not judging him by the standard of clever brothers, sisters, or friends. Each child has his own individual gifts, and the boy who is behind with his lessons may be very good at practical work.
2. There is a great difference between backwardness in general intelligence and backwardness in school subjects. The first is much more difficult to deal with, while the second may only be a temporary difficulty which can be easily cured.
3. In any case, it is useless to try and cure backwardness without understanding its causes. There may be many factors at work, and it is not enough to tinker with the obvious one.
4. Backwardness may have many causes:
 - (a) It may be caused by some slight physical defect; poor hearing or sight, or the after effects of some illness.
 - (b) It may be due to some mental difficulty which can probably be overcome; the child's memory may be bad or his imagination weak.
 - (c) It may be caused by some psychological difficulty which hampers the child in his work and general development; the child may be over-excitable or he may suffer from anxiety and nervousness.
5. Laziness is often treated as the cause of backwardness; but it is quite often a measure of self-protection.
6. Undue pressure or scolding from parents and teachers will never cure backwardness and will almost certainly aggravate it. If the child is two or more years behind other children of his age, parents should consult a trained psychologist. He will be able to discover the real cause and suggest a line of treatment which may overcome it and help the child to develop all the ability he does possess.

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PARENTS AND CHILDREN

SUPPLEMENT TO "THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL"

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FEAR AND ANXIETY

WILLIAM MOODIE

FEAR and anxiety can be most destructive factors in the life of a human being. These emotions are both, of course, natural under certain circumstances, and can be constructive. A person completely without fear would be constantly in danger, and without anxiety, one would probably also be deficient in planfulness and foresight. But when these emotions become pathological and exaggerated and take charge of the individual's behaviour, then they definitely become destructive. These emotions may also arise from unconscious causes, and then they may predispose the formation of definite nervous or even mental disorder.

Fear and Anxiety in Children

It is often said that the ideal in the upbringing of children is to eliminate all fear and anxiety. This is not strictly true. A child cannot be brought up completely without fear and anxiety, because these are fundamental, instinctive reactions, and the individual who does not display them must necessarily lack certain natural reactions of his kind. What is really meant is that the aim should be to allow the child so to develop that he is not mastered by fear and anxiety, and that these do not spring up out of his unconscious mind and rule his conduct.

The ideal is to minimize the harmful effects, while leaving the normal fear and anxiety untouched. How can this be accomplished?

What Is Anxiety?

Anxiety, being probably commoner than fear and less violent, may be discussed first. Anxiety is a state of doubt and apprehension as to what is going to happen. We are 'anxious' as we dodge the traffic till we get to the other side of the road. We are 'anxious' if a friend is ill, till we hear the result of his operation. These are natural feelings. All of us, however, have come

in contact with people who are anxious apparently about nothing; who will become abnormally perturbed if a child is out five minutes later than he was expected to be. They will work themselves up into a frenzy as to whether they will catch a train or not, or whether it is going to rain before they return home. The anxiety which these individuals display is not really about these things, but is an anxiety, as it were, looking about for something to justify its existence. These anxieties arise from unconscious motivations, deep down in the mind, from causes of very long standing; causes which, if the individual were to remember them now, would appear ludicrous and out of proportion to the emotion they now arouse.

Most of those of us who suffer from abnormal anxieties began to do so very early. All children suffer from anxiety, but this anxiety is constantly being allayed as life goes on. The child is anxious over now one thing, and then another, but as he discovers more about them, so the anxiety they arouse is allayed.

There are many parents, however, who, not understanding, cause anxieties, quite apart from natural anxieties, to grow in their children's minds. What is anxiety, after all, but an ignorance of what is going to happen? It is a state of wondering what the outcome of something is going to be, or what it all means.

There must be many things round a child which he cannot understand unaided, and in this highly complicated world there are not only objects which he can see and feel, and so comprehend, but many which are so complicated that seeing and feeling them does not tell him very much about them. These unknown and un-understood things cause anxiety until they become known and understood.

The child derives his information about these baffling things from adults and sometimes also from his contemporaries. He is told about them

by someone, and he naturally places a certain amount of reliance on what he is told. If, then, he is told first one thing, and then later on another, if he is given explanations which turn out later to be untrue, or if he is put off with a statement which is obviously wrong, he remains in a state of ignorance, and his anxiety is increased. He still does not know, he still is in a state of apprehension. So it is with children who are continually misled, who are never given satisfactory information and whose little fears and anxieties are not allayed by real truthful explanations. These children gradually build up an anxiety state which persists. They develop a habit, as it were, of being anxious, and they remain anxious. It is from the childish anxieties which occur early in life and are not allayed but actually increased by misleading statements of adults that many anxiety states develop.

Anxiety and Energy

Anxiety, too, is a state of pent-up energy. We are ready when we are crossing the street to leap at any moment as a motor-car approaches us. The whole body is in a state of preparedness for the expenditure of effort. This tenseness arises out of a necessity to be prepared and the expectation that some action will have to be taken. This state of expectation exists under conditions other than those which lead to anxiety. We have a desire to act if any situation presents itself to us. There is a tendency to 'do something about it'. First we appreciate the situation, then we recognize it to be pleasant or unpleasant, and there is a tendency to take appropriate action. This tendency to act gives rise to a state of preparedness very like the bodily state in anxiety. Children who are

prevented from acting, children whose natural actions are suppressed, whose play outlets or whose educational outlets, for instance, are limited, gradually get into this curious state of tension, this preparedness to act, and if it does not find relief, it becomes an integral part of an anxiety state. The child becomes anxious, pale, nervous and jumpy. He becomes tense. He cannot sit still and grows fretful and inattentive. He will be sick in motor-cars or in trains. He is over-receptive of outside influences and so his emotions will become over-active, and he will develop temper, tantrums, fits of rage, fears, and maybe even a tendency to physical violence.

Fear—Normal and Abnormal

It is only a short step from anxiety to fear. Fear is normal. We are afraid of certain things, such as the unknown—or of personal injury. We are afraid instinctively, just as we are anxious, of things we do not understand. We fear the dark; in the dark there may lurk dangers of which we are unaware. These fears of personal injury and of the dark are innate and instinctive; they are not necessarily acquired from experience. When we hear a child talking of things that may attack him in the dark, we need not always blame the nurse

for planting these ideas in his mind. Such ideas are, no doubt, often started in this way, but often they are merely the result of instinctive dread and vivid imagination. The child is afraid of the dark, and imagines ghosts, or some other terrifying object to be near him. Naturally to laugh at a child for such fears is worse than useless. Such a policy will only accentuate the difficulty. He may thereafter refrain from expressing his fears—but they are there all the



The youngest climber at Odenwald Schule

same. No amount of punishment or ridicule will do the slightest good.

Fear in itself is healthy, but the fear which occurs in these children who have a strong tendency to anxiety is not. It is present in the minds of such children to an exaggerated degree and, since they are unusually imaginative they will build up causes for the fear and invent phantasies of a terrifying nature which then become themselves the background for further fear. So the situation goes from bad to worse. It is clear, then, that in dealing with fears it is seldom of much use to attempt to explain the things of which the child declares he is afraid, but one must try to allay the underlying anxiety, first of all by giving the child security, and second, by draining the energy, giving the child intellectual and physical occupation so that the nervous potential may be brought down to a normal level.

Guilt

Closely allied to fears and anxieties are feelings of guilt, and it would not be proper to leave the subject of anxieties and fears without discussing another subject so nearly allied to them.

Cause and effect are strongly linked in the mind of the young child, and it is very easy for parents unthinkingly to give the child the im-

pression that he is himself responsible for averting or for causing events he dreads, and that he is responsible for bringing upon himself the consequences of his actions. Fear can be turned very easily into guilt, and many feelings we call guilt are actually fears which have anxiety as their basis.

Handling the Anxious Child

In certain anxious children, even the statement that they are naughty will cause alarm, and start a train of guilt, fear and anxiety. It is often said that children should never be called naughty and that they should never be criticized. This really matters little with normal children, but in these days of stress and strain, so many children suffer from

acute anxiety that it is harmful, in many instances, to use such terms, or to implant such ideas in their minds. It is often difficult for parents to decide just how much discipline can safely be used in the training of their children, how much danger there is in the use of old-fashioned methods of control, and how careful they must

be in the use of epithets such as 'naughty.'

From a practical point of view, if the relationship between the parents and the child is satisfactory, and the child is stable, no harm



Adventures by the sea in England

will be done, but, nowadays, numbers of children, as a result of present day conditions of living, are definitely tending towards anxiety states. For this reason one must be doubly careful in the handling of these children so that guilt feelings or anxiety shall not be set up.

In addition to these children who show exaggerations of normal anxiety, there are also the unstable ones whose pathological fears and pathological anxieties are part of a mental illness. These children should be given very definite psychological treatment. Luckily there are not many of them, but there are enough, and the condition is sufficiently serious, for



The oldest climbers of Odenwald Schule reach the summit

which form the basis of so many of the neurotic troubles of later life.

us to emphasize the necessity of recognizing this condition when it exists. A great deal can be done to allay, if not always to eliminate, it.

In conclusion, every child shows anxiety and fears to a greater or less degree, and care must be taken that these anxieties and fears are allayed and not exaggerated, and are handled with tact and with sympathy. A definite background of security should be created. If the child is made to feel secure, then one need have no fear about the development of pathological anxiety and fears, nor of these deeper difficulties

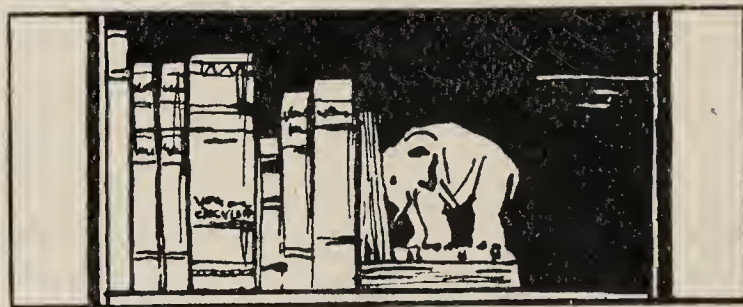
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POINTS FOR PARENTS TO REMEMBER

1. We cannot completely eliminate anxiety and fear from our children's lives, but we must strive to enable our children to develop so that they are not mastered by anxiety or fear.
2. Anxiety in the parent may be transmitted to the child without either being aware of it.
3. Anxiety is caused by uncertainty: it persists until the things which are not known and understood become known and understood. Therefore, a truthful explanation of the facts which puzzle them should always be given to children so that they may have a background of security.
4. Fear cannot be banished entirely from children's lives for it is a natural reaction connected with the instinct for self-preservation.
5. Fear should always be acknowledged and not hidden, and children's fears should never be ridiculed or punished.
6. Fear of the parents established in early childhood may make comradeship impossible in later life.
7. Feelings of guilt are often closely associated with anxiety and fear that the parents will cease to love the child.
8. Anxiety and fear are often aroused in the early years of childhood because the child experiences the displeasure of his parents before he is able to understand what they require of him.
9. The anxious child is often tense and jumpy—or he may compensate for his anxiety by being over-courageous.
10. Parents should be careful to see that their children have a background of security, that their fears are treated with sympathy and that scoldings or criticisms likely to arouse feelings of guilt are avoided. In cases where children are clearly overpowered by their anxiety and fear, the advice of a psychologist should always be sought.

MUSIC AND THE AVERAGE CHILD

An American Experiment

DOROTHY WALTON BINDER

THREE years ago, I happened to spend a long winter in Vienna, and my imagination was captured by the musical atmosphere in which everyone lived. Out in our suburb, the butcher and the baker and the fat Frau who kept the *Milchstube* all went to the local cafés every Saturday and Sunday and sang joyously till well after midnight. Down in the poverty-stricken city, concert after concert was given and there was never an inch of standing room left. At the public school my children attended, the teachers each played some kind of instrument and once a week there was an impromptu concert. Music is literally bread and butter to the Viennese and this

seemed to me the secret that had kept a people sane and lighthearted through nearly twenty years of slow starvation.

Shortly after our return to the United States, I was invited to a recital by the students of a new musical school called the *School of the Musical Arts and Crafts*. It was pleasant to see a group of six-year-olds sitting orchestra fashion at one end of the room with none of the tense appearance of children waiting to show off. The director stood in front of the children and said: 'Let's play *Pierrot*'. Each child produced a flute, a rude wooden tube pierced with a series of holes. I confess I expected a dreadful din to break out. After all, they were only six-year-olds and the

flutes, it seemed, they had made themselves. But the flutes were all in crystal clear tune and *Pierrot* was never more charmingly played. They played other airs, good folk tunes with a lilt and a swing, and their own enjoyment was altogether contagious.

A round-faced seven-year-old was asked to play a tune on his marimba and with beaming pride he tapped out a melody by Scarlatti. Older students demonstrated with other hand-made instruments—a violin, a 'cello, a guitar, pipes of Pan, a plectrachord, chimes, and a tiny organ whose pipes were ingeniously blown by the motor of a discarded vacuum cleaner. The musical tone of all these instruments amazed me. They were so simple, almost crude—yet the music that came from them was true and beautiful.

I had brought my unwilling ten-year-old son with me. It was frankly a plot on my part, for only a few weeks before he had given me his ultimatum on music. He hated it. He didn't want to take lessons and if I made him he wouldn't practise. I had assured him that I would force music lessons on no one and we had temporarily left it at that. He had always been extremely musical, but I knew his dread of being caged up with a piano or any other instrument with scales and exercises to practise when all the other boys were out in the vacant lot playing baseball. I watched him become more and more intrigued as the recital progressed, and when it was over he wandered up to examine the violin, the flutes, and most particularly the little organ.

'Say', he said, sidling up to me, his eyes sparkling, 'I think it would be kind of fun to go to a music school like this'.

That was two years ago. The stubborn little boy who said he hated music and would have none of it has changed his mind. We his parents have in the meantime done a good deal of thinking on the subject of musical education and particularly on the theories which inspired David Dushkin to experiment with his *School of the Musical Arts and Crafts*.

The Experiment

Mr. Dushkin started out after the war as a conventional music teacher in New York. But hours of listening to bored pupils play their

exercises and pieces, of seeing talented children turn away from music because of the irksome process of learning, determined him to think out other methods of teaching which would make ordinary, everyday children enjoy music. Recognizing the value of the creative attitude in other aspects of education, he asked himself why music could not be taught in the same spirit. If children learned, for instance, to make their own instruments, to tune them, to play upon them, to make up their own airs, to play with other children, wouldn't that be a more fundamental musical education than just 'taking lessons', and acquiring a little superficial skill on some instrument? Of one thing, however, he was convinced. It must be real music, real instruments, not just playthings. The work of Mrs. Satis Coleman, of New York, author of *Creative Music in the Home*, pointed the way. Months and months were spent in studying the instruments of primitive peoples everywhere, in experimenting with those that would be both musical and at the same time simple enough for young children to make themselves. Gradually groups of parents and educators became interested in his theories, and he found opportunities to work them out with various age groups of children in private homes and in private and public schools. But the limitations of working under a half-dozen different sets of conditions convinced him of the necessity of establishing his own studio. In the fall of 1931 *The School of the Musical Arts and Crafts* was opened in Winnetka, a suburb of Chicago.

Making the Instruments

This studio was once a farmhouse, and is set in the midst of an apple orchard. In the back of the house is a workshop with a huge music score on the wall. Rows of tools, pots of stain, and violins, 'cellos, flutes, organs and a half-dozen other kind of instruments in various stages of construction, a handful of boys and girls sawing, staining, filing, someone else in a corner tuning a flute—this is the scene the casual visitor may see at almost any hour of the day. The younger children are perhaps making marimbas or flutes or drums. A marimba is made of a series of cedar blocks of different lengths, the length determining the tone. A



A Children's Orchestra at the School of Musical Arts and Crafts

drum is a round container similar to a cheese box with a parchment stretched across its end. The degree of tautness varies the sound. A flute is a hollow tube with a series of holes of varying sizes, burned at intervals. Here the physics of music is being learned over the work-bench. Sound is produced in many ways, the youngster learns to his delight—by the vibration of a stretched skin or a hollow tube. Pitch is no longer a theory but an actual experience. Little holes make higher tones than large holes. Short blocks on the other hand make lower tones than long ones. By the time the flutes or marimbas or drums are finished the youngsters' ears are also musically trained. They will never suffer from the pitch deafness to which children taught on already tuned instruments are prone.

A child does not wait until his instrument is finished, however, in order to learn to play upon it. Half of the weekly lesson is taken up in practising on finished models so that once the child's own handiwork is completed he already knows how to play it. I shall never forget how, returning from a holiday soon after my ten-year-old had begun his musical career, I stepped from a taxi into the dark shadows and was startled to hear a piping tune emerging from a

clump of bushes. My exclamation brought an excited giggle and my young Pan in pyjamas rushed out upon me flute in hand.

The Children's Orchestra

To restrict the child to one instrument, however, even though he has made the choice himself, is, according to Mr. Dushkin, to prevent him from having the largest measure of musical experience. Away from the hammers and saws and chatter of the workshop a group of children are gathered in the music room about the piano. One has a marimba, another a drum, several have flutes. They play together in a pocket edition of an orchestra. Rhythm becomes vitally important when several play together. Pitch also must be absolute. And the discipline of youngsters in such a miniature orchestra is altogether self-imposed. If Peter doesn't keep time the rest of the children scold him. If Mary plays her flute with a more bell-like tone than the others everyone wants to know how she does it. Such an experience trains young ears to know different kinds of instruments, their tone qualities, their character. Little by little their musical horizon is widened, their appreciation enlarged. And it is fun to play together: a bond grows up among children

of a musical group which is not an ordinary bond.

Older children who have perhaps already had some musical experience are prepared for a richer musical medium than these simple instruments. A boy of ten can make a violin in twelve or fourteen lessons. A 'cello takes the same length of time. Every child is given the time and opportunity to try out a variety of instruments before he chooses the one he wishes to make. Not every child is adapted to the same instrument. Some instinctively understand a wind instrument, others a keyboard instrument. These instruments, of course, are much more complicated to make, but the musical knowledge the child has acquired when his instrument is complete is that of the true craftsman. And it is far more satisfying to play on one's own hand-made violin than on any instrument bought at the store.

The orchestra work of these older groups becomes even more thrilling. 'Cellos, flutes, violins, recorders, chimes, piano and marimba together make a delightful combination. Best of all, the children really want to compose, to try to express their thoughts in musical terms. Sometimes these original compositions are orchestrated and the young composer has the satisfaction of hearing his own melody played by the entire group of children.

An electrical recording machine makes accurate phonograph records of the children's playing in order to help them keep track of their progress, and to encourage them to raise their standards of performance. The phonograph record can be heard the moment the recording has been taken, which gives the children an excellent opportunity for self-criticism and saves the director an enormous amount of unwelcome advice.

Pioneering in Music

But music needs hard technical study. How do the children in this type of music school achieve that? The first aim is to supply a musical atmosphere in order to create a desire for musical expression among children. When the children have progressed to instruments which need individual teaching and daily prac-

tice, they are assigned to the teacher of their particular instrument for a weekly private lesson. Each group of children graded according to social congeniality rather than ability comes together once a week to play as an orchestra under Mr. Dushkin's leadership. The teachers of the different instruments play with the children because it was found that teachers and children enjoyed playing together and that the bond of sympathy between them was considerably strengthened. Sometimes the teachers play the same parts as the children. Sometimes they play accompaniments according to the purpose in teaching the piece. But the music, while simple, is always of the finest. Hearing their own kind of instruments well played makes children's ears more sensitive to improving their own standard. Practising alone is no tiresome ordeal when the seed of desire for greater musical growth has been planted.

The most intriguing thing of all about the *School of the Musical Arts and Crafts* is the feeling of pioneering, the sense of experimentation. The instruments may perhaps be perfected to a higher degree or a new kind of instrument may be invented. Children and teachers talk these things over together and the children feel the thrill of charting new paths. At the spring concert given for the parents this May under the blossoming apple trees two new kinds of instruments were introduced—reed organs and a flute with a keyboard. Both are designed to give children with a preference for the piano a new experience.

My own erstwhile music hater now feels himself to be one of the pillars of the school. Beginning with a flute he progressed to a 'recorder', a kind of bass flute, and thence to a violin. During his first six months at the school he made his small sister a flute and taught her to play it. Since then she too has joined the orchestra and we have banished that dreaded horror of all American parents—the radio bedtime hour—by substituting our own family orchestra. Young ears have become joyfully aware of good music everywhere. My youngsters have what I had so envied the Viennese, something that flood or fire, revolution or depression can never take away from them.

PARENTS AND CHILDREN

SUPPLEMENT TO "THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL"

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PREPARING FOR LIFE

MARIA B. TE WATER

WE often hear parents say that their aim is to prepare their children for life. By this they usually mean that they are trying to keep their children at school or college long enough for them to acquire the technical skill and knowledge that will enable them to earn their living in one of the recognized trades or professions.

But technical proficiency is not a complete preparation for life. It is not even a complete preparation for earning one's living. There are many people who have acquired excellent training as physicians, lawyers, teachers, stenographers, mechanics, carpenters and so on, who are not only not successful, but who actually fail to earn enough to meet their ordinary living expenses. For we need more than mere training in some particular kind of work if we are to take part in the work of the world to-day.

Social Maturity

Conscientious parents take great care of the physical and mental health of the child, but not enough thought has been devoted to studying him in his social aspect, i.e. in his relations to other people. We have some idea of what a physically mature person is like and of what bodily energy can be expected of him or her. We are devoting some time to the study of what might be expected of a mentally mature person, and are gaining experience in helping children to arrive at mental maturity. But very few people have thought it worth while to pay much attention to what constitutes a socially mature personality.

Except in times of abnormal unemployment, any person who is technically equipped to earn his living and yet cannot do so successfully has certain personality traits which are preventing

him from keeping any job long enough to make a success of it. Constant failures make him lose faith in himself, and do inferior work and so acquire a name for being inefficient. Eventually he does not earn enough to keep up the standard of living to which he has been accustomed.

Holding Down a Job

When one makes a study of the difficulties of which these people usually complain, one finds that the following are among the most important :—

(1) They may be unable to get along with the foreman, the head of the office, clients or customers, the principal of the school, the other teachers, the parents or with the children themselves.

(2) They may dislike criticism. Any adverse comment by their superiors will cause them to argue, to 'talk back' or even lose their tempers and resign.

(3) They may resent doing anything outside the strict limits of the job for which they have been paid. Such a person will be regarded as having no special interest in his work, and though he may not actually lose his job, he will be unlikely to go far in it. When there is a question of promotion, any employer will try to find among his employees not only the most efficient, but also the most willing and co-operative worker.

So it is very important that parents should pay special attention to those difficulties in the characters of their children which might prevent them from making the best of the education and training they have received. For none of these difficulties appears suddenly in the grown-up person. They can all be traced back in some form or other to the school-room and

the home. And if only parents will help the child towards right relationships with others, they will have gone a long way towards preparing him for life.

A few concrete examples may help parents to make up their minds what to guard against in the social training of their children.

Parents and Social Training

John does not find a place in the first team, so instead of trying to be one of the best players of the second he gives up football altogether. He may even take a great delight in criticizing all the players in both teams. Later he may become so critical of children who do better than he, both in and out of school, that his number of friends grows more and more limited. One can easily see the type of man John is going to become, and how he is going to react to the hundred and one difficulties that will come his way when he is earning his living.

Mary is so fond of her games and of having a good time that she scamps her home-work and her little household duties. Some of the work is left undone, some of it is done hurriedly and carelessly. If these difficulties are not removed one can easily see Mary becoming a teacher or stenographer who is unreliable, inefficient and untrustworthy when her own interests clash with the standard of work expected of her.

Allen may be willing to do his ordinary work well enough, but if he is asked to do anything



The Heat Wave



At Hurtwood School

extra he objects: 'Why can't Tom or John or Alec do that?' or: 'If I do this, what are you going to give me?' or: 'You did not tell me to do that, so why do you expect me to do it?' or: 'That was not my job, it is Ann's business to see that the fish is put in the cupboard, out of reach of the cat'. Many mothers could give dozens of examples of how their children shirk responsibility for any work which is not strictly their own. Children in whom these character traits are outstanding are likely to develop into men and women who find it difficult to hold down a job.

Preparing for Life at School

David resents criticism so much that he becomes sulky and antagonistic to the person who has criticized him, and makes no effort to do better. He even comes to dislike the things on which he is constantly criticized so much that he gives them up. Many a child has been allowed to drop certain subjects in school because of this, and has found later on that he is debarred from some course of training in which these subjects are obligatory.

Many children dislike arithmetic and become careless over their sums and long for the time when they can stop. Is there any work in which

the ability to do simple arithmetic is not important? Many a stenographer has not been able to make progress in her work because her additions and subtractions are not accurate. Careless and bad spelling is another difficulty that can be a very serious handicap. Parents

may feel that this aspect of a child's training belongs properly speaking to the school. This may be so, but friendly co-operation between the parents and the teacher is very necessary if these difficulties are to be removed. Too many parents try to encourage their children by saying: 'Oh, never mind. I can't do arithmetic' or: 'Can't spell either', instead of telling the child of the handicap they have had to put up with just because they can't do these things.

Parent-Teacher Co-operation

This is a grave failure in the parent's responsibility towards the child, for not only are these children not being trained to cope with life successfully later on, they are actually developing, through mistaken treatment, character traits that will make it very difficult for them to succeed in any career. They are



Summer at Odenwald Schule

acquiring a habit of not facing their own difficulties, of excusing themselves by blaming others, of refusing to learn new ways of doing things from other people. They are learning to feel satisfied with their own progress and ability, however mediocre, and eventually this will sap their initiative and prevent them from ever increasing their efficiency. They are not learning to fit easily into whatever position or circumstance they may find themselves. They

become dissatisfied, discouraged and unhappy people, and as such cause unhappiness and dissatisfaction wherever they may be, in their own home, among their friends and in their work.

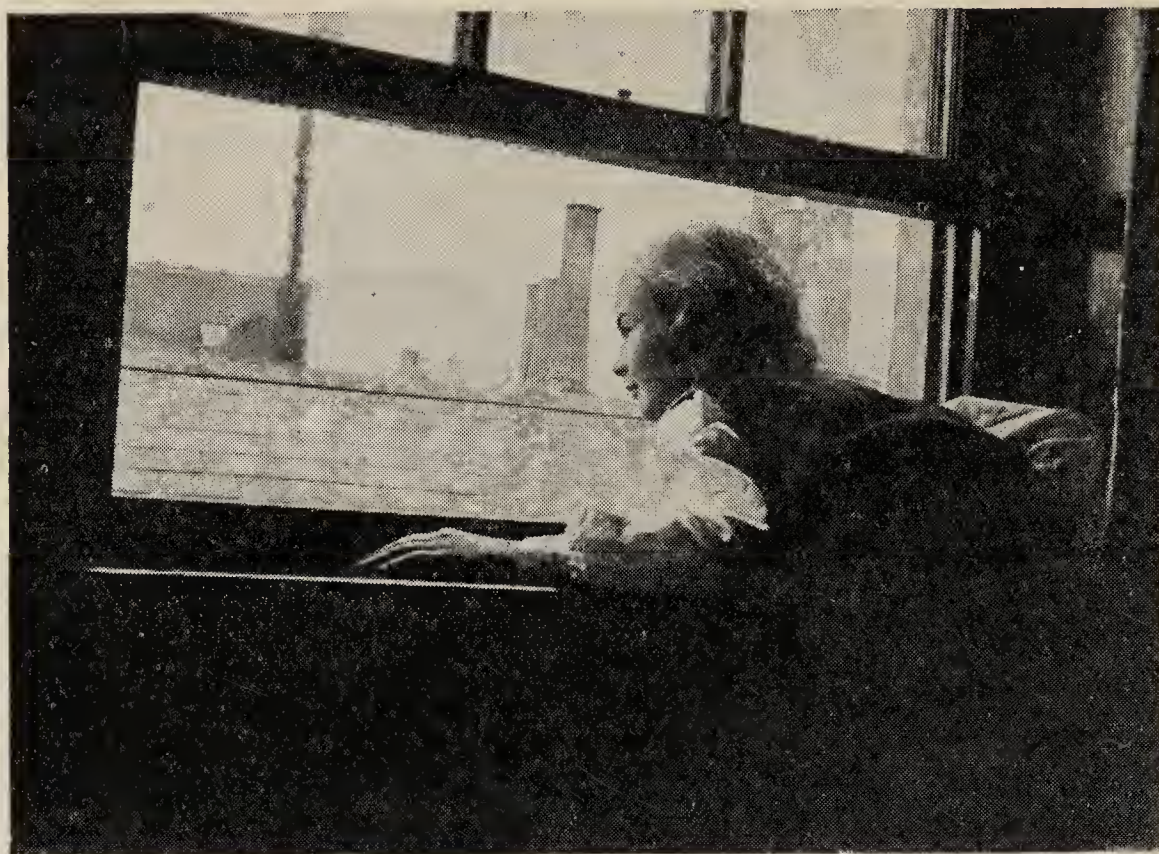
Parents and teachers should help the children in their charge to meet life squarely and to face and remove difficulties and to appreciate the other man's point of view.

POINTS FOR PARENTS TO REMEMBER

1. Academic or technical training is not sufficient in preparing children for life.
2. However good their mental equipment, children will never make a success of life as adults unless their relationships with the people with or for whom they work and among whom they live are satisfactory.
3. Inability to get on with others, oversensitiveness to criticism, dislike of responsibility, carelessness and unwillingness to do extra work—these are some of the character traits which frequently show themselves in children, and which, if they are not uprooted, prevent those children from getting and keeping jobs when they leave school.
4. Therefore parents should pay very careful attention to any trait in their children's character which may, later on, prevent them from succeeding in life.
5. Such 'social' training will enable children to reach social maturity; they will adapt themselves satisfactorily to adult life, and will be able to co-operate with other people and to appreciate their point of view.
6. The responsibility for giving the child the kind of training which will make him socially mature rests not only with the parents but also with his teachers, and it is of vital importance that there should be real co-operation between home and school.

THE NEUTRALITY OF ADOLESCENCE

GEORGE A. LYWARD



'Adolescence—a dreamy period'

AT the outset. If adolescence is an especially difficult period of life, then it ill becomes anybody to make it more difficult.

A schoolmaster once wrote on a boy's half term report, 'Your son is trying', and on the same boy's full term report, 'Your son is very trying'. The English language makes it easier to be wise than is often realized. Adolescence is a trying time. To ask a group of adolescents about adolescence is to be confronted with contradictions at once. 'A materialistic period', 'An idealistic period', 'A thoughtful period', 'A dreamy period', 'A love-sick period', 'A period when you feel no affection', 'A know-all period', 'A questioning period.'

The dictionary gives 'A state or process of growth from childhood to manhood or womanhood, between puberty and maturity; males, 14 to 25, females, 12 to 21'. Unlike the people between 14 and 20 who gave the replies quoted above, the dictionary avoids the word period and says 'process.'

The Neutral Period

When parents are expecting a baby they start by talking about 'he or she', unwilling to commit themselves to stating a preference. Gradually, the 'he or she' gives way to 'it'. Soon the word will be 'he' for a boy or 'she' for a girl, the last word on the subject depending upon fact. Between avoidance of the issue and acceptance of the issue comes neutrality.

Adolescence is a neutral period, a dead time. 'Dead time' (seconds, minutes, hours without meaning or inspiration), puts it not unsatisfactorily, because during the process of growth between childhood and maturity, time is not comfortably related in a living relationship with non-time, the 'daily round' with the unmeasurable things like love and loyalty, which, unmeasurable though they be, yet find themselves best expressed within the limits of time and space. The adolescent is full of the fear of living, frantic often in his attempts to feel alive. Pleasure seeking and 'ism worship of all kinds bear witness to this fear, although they cannot

resolve it at any given moment or in any given place.

Pleasure seeking is clearly superficial, while underneath the adolescent's worship of '-isms', there lurks a fear of responsibility. In all his idealism there is a subjective quality, for natural feelings repressed or kept in subjection by fear tend to become mummified in an idea.

'Ah, Love, could thou and I with Fate
conspire

To grasp this sorry Scheme of things entire,
Would not we shatter it to bits—and then
Rebuild it nearer to the Heart's Desire!

This is the language of a neutral period. Its tense stress stamps it as such. The relation of the lovers in question both to one another and to the world they would fashion would be that of grey furniture against a grey wall. 'You and I' and 'the world' smack equally of the egocentricity legitimate to childhood and of the healthy objective attitude which marks maturity. Yet the lines belong to neither of these two spontaneous periods of life. It is as when two civilizations touch one another. The first indications of it are not pleasant. In the materialism of adolescence there is neither the frank sensuousness of the child nor the practical common-sense of maturity, both of the earth but not earthy as the adolescent sometimes glories in being.

The Age of Thinking

All day long we feel, we think, we act; in that order. Each act is the coming to maturity of a feeling, life in miniature. For Childhood is an age of feeling, Adolescence of thinking, Maturity of action.

Thinking has the adolescent in thrall. Our present educational system, with its over-valuation of thought, frequently increases the strain and stress by treating such thralldom as good 'in itself'. But temporary thralldom is the price of a later freedom and this should be a sobering reflection for adolescent-minded educationists who fly to the opposite extreme as if they knew how to abolish growing pains.

Prior to adolescence, the child is gaining a foothold in the material world. It is no wonder that, having at such a price bought freedom therein, the material looms large in the con-

sciousness of the young adolescent. This is not a reference to sex interest in the narrow sense, but that does illustrate the point. No amount of information about sex can forestall completely the awareness of it with which the adolescent has to grapple before he clears sex of its terrors. It is not enough for a parent to be able to say: 'But I was not like my neighbours; I told my children all about it'. The mere giving of abstract information will not solve the problem. Not to realize this is to throw in one's lot with the headmaster who thought that physical science could be taught without access to a laboratory.

In pondering over adolescence, it is well to keep the rock-climbing metaphor in mind. After the last peak in the material world is won, there is the first in the second world waiting. Adolescent experience is made up very largely of two opposing elements. On the one hand there is the acute awareness of his creative capacity as distinguished from the instinct of self-preservation—which latter is so often hampered in its quick natural responses during childhood. On the other hand, there is a marked increase in the thinking activity, seeming to say 'No' to the body as something inferior and sharply separated from itself. It is fatally easy to accentuate the strain which results from these co-existing opposites until it is too great for the individual to endure. Still worse, there are only too many people of fourteen or more in whom, owing to early mistakes in treatment or environment, the pull back to childish values is so strong that they cannot respond to the attraction forward through adolescent conflict to maturity. Awareness of the power to create (including sex awareness in the limited sense) should establish the child firmly on the last peak in the physical world and inspire the further adventure to the world of grown men and women. But unfortunately it often weakens the adolescent's position in the former and confuses all attempts towards the second. For instance, many a young adolescent knows how rabbits are born and a good deal about pollen and yet talks 'smut' because his sense of humour is jaundiced by guilt-feeling when it plays round the subject of 'babies', as it is bound to do, because it can recognize no territory as out of bounds. Just as it was nearly won, the first foothold is



'Adolescence—a questioning period'

threatened by the very knowledge which should have made it secure. And if thought and the body (and so creative life) are conceived as enemies, then the second foothold, only possible in an acceptable and accepted heterosexual world, is not reached and the adolescent, an inverted 'I', must move about in worlds unrealized.

This new world so hard to realize is difficult to name. Abstract, qualitative, spiritual, interior—they are all liable to be misunderstood. 'Intellectual' certainly will not do. That is too often the name for a prison to serve here. Perhaps it is wiser to leave it as 'a world in which it is easier to be misunderstood', or 'a world which it is easier to misunderstand', where the objects of attention have not the defined space and time characteristics of chairs and tables, and yet must be touched somehow, just as the child touches the tables and chairs before it can know them with its eyes alone and be satisfied that way.

Between Two Worlds

The stories of things said and done to adolescents by relations and friends are sometimes

incredible in the light of this fact that the adolescent is *by definition* somebody whose foothold is insecure (in one world if not in two). It is not easy to look pleasant while clinging grimly to a rock, and the adolescent may seem an ugly sight at times with his fear-determined dogmatism and boasting, his sentimentalism in religion and politics. But all the time, he is holding on and 'trying' and 'thinking'; and if his feelings break loose it is because his feeling cannot yet flow through channels of thought into action. He is holding on until it is 'reasonably' safe to be natural and spontaneous again (and so less 'trying'), this time in an adult world. He needs thought as a shield before he uses it as a sword in a world of values rather than prices. Gradually he will discover that it is not faithless to say 'agnosco' and that it is not criminal to be poor. But he will discover these things as the fears and fear-begotten snobberies of adolescence are resolved.

Thinking and Feeling

The world is a tragedy to those who feel, a comedy to those who think. Wordsworth's little girl, who lost her cloak and cried as though her

heart would break, found life a tragedy. If she had been adolescent and already temporarily lost herself in thought, she would have found many things apparently a matter for jest. This is temporary neurosis, and if she had been afraid, as a pre-adolescent, of being herself and 'gone masculine' she would have added a cocktail and laughed louder or more bitterly.

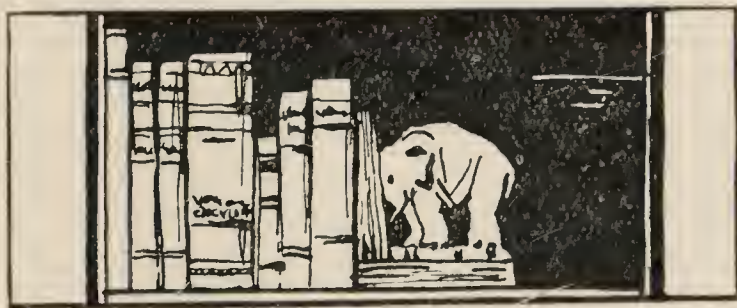
In brief, thinking has to be wedded to feeling and in the adolescent, they are at best only engaged, often at variance. When thought has become a quick-responding instrument at the service of the feeling-out self, life is neither all tragedy nor all neutralized tragedy, to wit comedy. 'It' and '-ism' give way to personal enjoyment, personal suffering, as contrasted with the dead-alive, bitter-sweet unreality during the process of change from childhood to maturity. Life is not then something about which to know all, but a welcome chaos of which 'I' start making what 'I' will. 'C'est moi qui ai vecu' wrote de Musset.

'I am what I think' or 'I am what I think I

am' are alike illusions of adolescence. 'I am what I am' is the beginning of maturity. Confronted with the sublimity of things as *they* are the adult feels it no shame to say 'Ich fülte so gross, so klein'. So big, so little. But it is necessary to remember that an adolescent cannot yet put these two words together into the same sentence, so he creeps or swaggers alternately. He is, in effect, taking an examination as to whether his foundations have been well and truly laid, and although he may talk big to the hall porter as he slouches or blusters into the examination hall, he is a little uneasy with the invigilator, whose business is not to pass judgment but merely to see that he is supplied with paper upon which to write and that his answers have at least the beauty of being his very own.

A parent or teacher is called in the nature of things to keep vigil as a child dies into an adolescent to be reborn in the fullness of time. Sometimes he behaves like a judge and never knows to what life-in-death he has condemned another by his false assumption.

HELPFUL



BOOKS

Social Development in Young Children
S. Isaacs. (Routledge 15s.).

An excellent and comprehensive study of the child in relation to other children and to adults.

Our Children—A Handbook for Parents
(*Edited by Dorothy Canfield Fisher & Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg*). (Viking Press \$2.75).

An invaluable reference book dealing with all the major problems likely to be encountered by parents in the education of their children.

The Sensitive Child *Kate Whiting Patch.*
(Allenson 2s. 6d.).

A sympathetic study of childhood, valuable to both parents and teachers.

The Human Personality *Louis Berg.* (Williams & Norgate 8s. 6d.).

An interesting exposition of the main trends of modern psychology, its relation to certain aspects of medical science and its bearing on the problems of modern life.

Childhood's Fears *G. F. Morton.* (Duckworth. New edition. 3s. 6d.)

SHOULD CHILDREN BE CONSIDERATE?

JANNA KENDAL

HOW much, if at all, should children be controlled and curbed for the sake of other people? No normal child, for instance, wants to sit still and quiet for very long at a time: there are so many things it wants to do, and they are all noisy, and therefore disturbing to grown-ups. But it is as natural for a child to shout and rush about as it is for an adult to move sedately and speak more calmly. How then can we reasonably blame our children for these activities when they are as right in their way as we are in ours?

The whole difficulty lies in the incompatibility of the child-way and the adult-way; and we can only solve the problem by recognizing that both child and adult have their rights and by trying to keep the balance between the two as fairly as possible.

Recognizing Children's Rights

We should realize that children are important people with their own lives to live; their affairs are as important to them as ours are to us. It is simply cowardly, since we are the stronger, to stop a child's game merely because it annoys us or to force it to be quiet purely for our own convenience. But, on the other hand, we must not become slaves to our children, and they must learn not to worry us when we are busy. We must be left alone, but we must also leave alone.

There are times when we must interfere; we have every right to stop a child if it is damaging other people's property, cutting pieces off the tablecloth or hammering nails into the piano, for instance. But there is no need to scold the child, for there is nothing naughty about such activities. A little girl sees her mother cutting out material for a dress . . . why should *she* not cut out the tablecloth? Daddy hammers nails into planks . . . why shouldn't Tommy do the same with the piano?

But we should not only explain to the child that these pieces of property are ours and we do

not want them spoilt; the remedy is to put in the child's way a bit of stuff or a piece of wood with which it *can* do what it likes. We should try never to stop a child's activities merely by forbidding them, but by suggesting some other equally enjoyable but less harmful occupation.

Respecting Children's Property

We can only reasonably expect a child to respect our property if it has property of its own which we respect. All children should have a room or corner of their own where they can keep their belongings and make as much mess and noise as they like. Then when we want to be quiet we can simply tell them that in our room now we want peace and they must go to their room or the garden if they want to be noisy. Of course we should never—except in cases of serious illness in the house or like reasons—attempt to enforce silence in the play-room; indeed, we must realize that if the children demand, when we are in their room, that we either join in their game or go away they are well within their rights!

Similarly they should not leave our rooms untidy if they found them neat when they began to play, but their own room they should be free to leave as they like; they will soon find that a certain amount of neatness pays when they see that otherwise toys become lost or broken.

For each other's things, too, they must learn respect. They can be encouraged—but never ordered—to share their books and toys, but they should each have their own private belongings and a special place to keep them, with complete right of ownership over them. They will usually lend them freely enough if they are not forced to do so.

Of course, it would need a particular kind of saint to be consistently fair and reasonable with children; but we can all try to go half-way to meet them in our joint lives . . . more than half-way, even, for we are older and should be wiser.

PARENTS : AND CHILDREN

SUPPLEMENT TO "THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL"

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DISCIPLINE

W. E. BLATZ

It is rather surprising to consider the care with which the state safeguards the public weal against the machinations of charlatans and the incompetency of inefficients in such fields as medicine, law, industry, etc., and the carelessness and indifference which it shows towards the control (or lack of control) of the bringing up of children. To look at this problem in another light: in order to practice medicine, law, engineering, accountancy, etc., the state provides examining boards who certificate an applicant. In the bringing up of children no such certification is necessary, no training is provided and yet strangely enough, each parent considers herself, and especially himself, an expert. Because of the experience with one, two or even more children a self-certification is accomplished. Even spinsters and bachelors, with perhaps more self-justification, license themselves, by implication, to the rôle of expert rearers of children if not bearers.

Such problems as vocational guidance, selection of educational milieus, holidays, companionship, and so on, are airily dealt with on the slender experience of one's own childhood which strangely enough is always considered an admirable yardstick with which to measure the human race. But there is one problem upon which everyone has an opinion more or less crystallized, namely that of *discipline*. How many sins against common sense practice have been committed in the name of 'discipline' it is impossible to estimate and perhaps useless to enquire, but it becomes a matter of grave urgency to enquire into ways and means of avoiding the same mistakes generation after generation. We 'point with pride' at the successful units of each generation and accept them as a justification of whatever

scheme of 'discipline' was invoked. We do not however, 'view with alarm' those who have failed, the misfits, etc. We disregard them, hide them, incarcerate them, shake our heads over the vagaries of heredity and the acts of God and continue our blundering way 'hoping for the best'. It is quite obvious to even casual observation that the successes (so-called) achieve their position *in spite of* the disciplinary procedure, and our misfits are the direct result of faulty training.

A Concept of Discipline

Discipline is a far more comprehensive term than simple rules of guidance. In fact the rules are the least important item in any system. They constitute guide posts for the unintelligent. The more vigorously they are adhered to, the more unintelligent the disciplinary regime. So often strictness and rigidity are more or less efficient masks for stupidity. An adequate scheme of discipline is not a set of rules and regulations, printed and posted, but rather a philosophy of living, a *way*. The common law of England, being unwritten, is perhaps as close an approximation to a good scheme of discipline as exists, but it depends upon the intelligence of its jurists and the elasticity of their powers, rather than the crystallization of modes of practice. But there is omitted one important aspect; for it is purely administrative, and the educative aspect is so carefully neglected that it is harmful in its non-existence.

Discipline and a Philosophy of Life

Thus a scheme of discipline may be discussed from three aspects: (1) the acceptance of a philosophy of life, (2) a means of teaching this philosophy, (3) a means of administering

the process of learning. It is apparent that even a casual survey of our own practice or ideas in connection with these three aspects will indicate how fundamental they are and secondly how superficial is the thinking of the average individual concerning them, and, unfortunately, how dogmatic and stupid is the attitude of a great many whose position is such as to make their opinions and practice influential in human affairs, for example, parents, school teachers, judges, ministers, legislators and fanatics. Furthermore it should be all too evident that the problem of discipline is not a simple matter of saying 'do thus and so' or 'Thou shalt not do thus and so' but rather requires a great deal of self-analysis and soul searching. The scheme about to be envisaged is far more difficult than the old-fashioned complacency which has survived because it was so easy. It requires thinking and intelligent thinking, and of course will not be popular.

In an article of this scope it is possible only to comment briefly on the three aspects mentioned above. There are a great many philosophies of life, as indicated by the innumerable religions, each one of which is potentially satisfying. The acceptance of a philosophy is more important than the specific philosophy involved.

In general one can view the behaviour of individuals in terms of a series of consecutive acts. One act follows upon the other inevitably. Each act is followed by a consequence of some sort. If a child steps into space he falls; if a boy eats his dinner he is no longer hungry; if a man works he is paid. Experience in life is the envisaging of the consequence of acts. A philosophy of life which is independent of ceremony and cant and dogmatism is the willingness of the individual to accept the consequences of



Play-time at the Frances Parker School

his acts, no matter what they may be. These consequences can be avoided, if unpleasant, by inhibiting the act in question, but once the act is consummated there should be willingness to accept the full consequences of the behaviour. The decisions and choices which an individual makes are dependent upon the growth and development of judgment. The means by which the individual acquires what is called 'good' judgment brings us to the second aspect of the disciplinary scheme,

namely, the means to be employed for teaching this philosophy.

Teach the Child to Accept Responsibility

It must not be assumed that a child is born with judgment. This is wholly a learned phenomenon. It is no more to be expected that a child will suddenly acquire adequate judgmental behaviour than that he should suddenly sit down at the piano without any previous training and play a Bach fugue; or that a boy without any previous training could be placed on a bicycle and could ride away with the skill of an expert. The method to be employed for teaching is a careful gauging of the growth and maturity of the child and then arranging so that he must accept responsibility commensurable thereto. One cannot expect a child to be protected and helped and assisted during the period of his infancy and youth and then suddenly, because of mere age, assume the responsibility of adulthood. It may well be asked, 'What responsibility must an infant assume, or a child, or a youth?' An infant can decide whether he wishes to eat or not; if he does not eat he goes hungry. This responsibility can be placed directly on the shoulders of the infant. A child can decide whether he wishes to play with a companion or not. A youth can

decide whether he wishes to spend his allowance or save it. In other words, whenever a child reaches the stage where the choice is within his capacity and he can anticipate the consequences, then he should be permitted to decide whether he wishes to accept these consequences or not. The question immediately arises as to how the parent or teacher is to know when the child has reached the various stages of maturity. The answer to this question is all too obvious. All those who have the responsibility of guiding children should make a study of infancy, childhood and youth, so that they will become skilled in analysing and interpreting their behaviour. Rules and regulations cannot be substituted for lack of knowledge.

Help Him to Foresee the Consequences of His Acts

The third point to be discussed is the method of administering the process of learning through which each individual must pass and which starts at birth and ends at death. If the above reasoning is sound, then the aim of the administrator is to arrange the environment in such a way that the child would learn quickly and accurately to anticipate consequences. He must learn to avoid fire because it burns, to avoid sharp instruments because they cut, to avoid irritating behaviour because of disapproval, to preserve his goods and chattels, otherwise they will be lost or destroyed, and so on. In order that he may anticipate consequences adequately, these consequences

must be consistent. In the so-called physical world the consequences *are* consistent. When a child touches a flame the consequences are immediate, inevitable, invariable and graduated. These four characteristics of a consequence comprise the consistency of a physical adjustment, and so a child soon learns to avoid sharp corners of furniture, sharp instruments, heights, and so on. It is when we consider the consequences of his social adjustment that we find that arranging consequences possessing the four characteristics mentioned above is extremely difficult. If we think of the concept of punishment we find that seldom can it be immediate; it is never inevitable, it cannot be invariable, and is only very artificially graduated. Gilbert and Sullivan's travesty of the attempt to 'make the punishment fit the crime' may be cited as a searching analysis

and a biting criticism of our methods of discipline in home, in school, and in state. The very idea of punishment is foreign to this scheme because we are dealing with a learning process, and not with a moral phenomenon.

And so the method of administering the scheme is to look upon it from the point of view of a teacher. If a child deviates from what we consider to be reasonable behaviour the act in question should be considered a 'mistake' and not a 'crime'. The analysis of the situation should be, first, 'Has this child had an opportunity of learning an acceptable form of adjustment to this situa-



Children at the Frances Parker School

tion?'; secondly, 'What can I as a parent or teacher do to help this child eliminate this unusual form of adjustment and substitute for it one that is more acceptable?' If these two questions are asked and the behaviour of the teacher analysed in terms of the four characteristics of consistent

consequences, the problem of bringing up children will become more difficult, certainly, but the results in terms of greater satisfaction on the part of the individual and more effective social inter-relationships would repay the extra effort necessary to incorporate these doctrines into the scheme of child training.

POINTS FOR PARENTS TO REMEMBER

1. Blind obedience is not discipline; and discipline can never be built up merely by establishing rules of behaviour and issuing commands.
2. Before we begin to discipline our children, we must first understand what we mean by discipline and then overhaul our own attitude to life.
3. We must ourselves realize that each of our actions is followed by a definite result: it is within our power to decide whether to take a certain course of action or not; but having decided to take it, we must willingly accept the consequences.
4. It is essential that we should gradually teach our children to understand this when they are young, otherwise they will be unable to assume responsibility for their actions when they are grown up.
5. We must therefore teach them to anticipate the consequences of their actions; and this can only be done if we help them to take responsibility when they are very young. Even a small child can decide whether it will eat or go hungry, join in a game or play alone, care for its toys or break them.
6. We must remember, however, that if a child is to learn to gauge the consequences of his actions, these consequences must be consistent. This is comparatively simple as far as physical matters are concerned; the child who plays with fire does get burnt; the child who refuses to eat will go hungry.
7. But it is far more difficult for us to be consistent where points of behaviour are concerned; for we ourselves are apt to let our moods get the better of us; we overlook tiresome behaviour one day and punish it the next.
8. Before we blame a child for behaving unreasonably, we should be sure that he has sufficient experience of similar situations to enable him to understand what he is doing: then we should set out to try and help him to overcome his difficulty.
9. True discipline comes from within; and if we are to develop it in our children, we must help them to think and judge for themselves.
10. We shall never succeed unless we have infinite patience and sympathy and a real knowledge of how much we can expect from our children at the different stages of their development.

THE QUESTIONING OF ADOLESCENCE

GEORGE A. LYWARD

ADOLESCENCE, then, shall be described as the period during which a one-time child is being tested as to whether he can survive neutralization or death, that is, be reborn to salt the hetero-sexual world of men and women.

Life—The Examiner

There is a general appreciation of the fact that it is a testing time, but parents and teachers are sometimes a little too sure that *they* are the appointed examiners. Even in academic examinations, a good deal of false marking and placing results from the inadequate appreciation by the examiner of what really lies behind the answers he is reading. This is a reflection upon the examiner rather than upon the examinee. It is unavoidable, for examiners cannot always be got who have felt as deeply as some teachers and candidates. What a serious matter if the invigilator (the parent or teacher) assumes the role of judge where Life is the Teacher and ultimately the Examiner, and where the subject of the examination is nothing less than 'Can you die daily?' It is indecent. It argues a lack of respect for Life and Death. It results in confusion between them—accurately named life-in-death. During adolescence, the lawless love-world of the child is giving way to a more free (but apparently less free) law-world, and it is necessary that the laws should be perceived as hard, stern and irrevocable, invigorating, but certainly not as personal whims of those who have apparently preceded our adolescent into the world of values. If the adolescent does not feel as impersonal the pressure of the laws of life and love, and accept it as the grapes may be said to accept the foot that treads out their virtue for use, then he will jib at the impertinence of *personal* judgment and not pass on once more to love experience which is a fulfilling of the laws.

The wrong treatment of adolescents has its counterpart in the wrong treatment of pre-adolescents. Small children, nowadays, are less hindered than they were in the business of selecting their food, digesting it and expelling

it, as matters of convenience rather than 'duty'. Mothers' Unions, Wives' Fellowships, Children's Clinics and the like have encouraged the spread of knowledge concerning the physical welfare of the small child. In a less degree, teachers are coming to realize that a small child must be allowed to explore the physical world and do it at more or less his own rate. But there are still thousands of parents to whom the littleness of their little ones is more pleasing than the one-ness, thousands of infants unscientifically or inartistically fed, thousands of teachers who cannot leave children alone to sense their environment, not perceiving that the sensible adult and the adult of fine sensibility is largely the product of full sense experience in early years.

And so with the adolescent. Those who have behaved wrongly towards them as small children will, of course, continue to do so when they are adolescents—if they have survived the early wrong treatment and become adolescents. And others will miss the analogies between the physical and the spiritual which to the initiated are inescapable, and will treat the '14 years plus' fellow-being as they would have scorned to treat the small child.

Selecting, digesting, expelling, are words which apply quite well to the games, work, friendship, life of the adolescent. They refer to processes which belong to the nature of things, to growth. Anything other than the reaching of a new stage by growth is short coming. The critics of adolescents are not always aware that shortcomings *must* be due to earlier interference with that unfolding from within, which depends upon well-timed (that is nature-timed, unconsciously timed) selection, digestion, and expulsion.

It is difficult to distinguish sharply between a neurotic reaction and one which can be admitted as normally adolescent, because, during adolescence, there are bound to be many temporary failures to adjust quickly to circumstances. Such a difficulty has at least this to be



Gathering Classroom Flowers at Long Beach, California

said for it, that it brings into relief the characteristic of adolescence which is indicated by the title of this article.

It is by his questioning that the adolescent is weaving himself into the pattern of things. Errors easily involve him in relationship entanglements, each of which takes time to unravel, even when nobody is impatiently pulling at an end of the skein and tightening it into knots.

One of the most typical adolescent situations is this. Jane, aged 17, has been to the theatre. She has enjoyed herself 'no end'. (This is how she will talk to her friends on the following day.) When she arrives home, tired, she is pressed to 'tell us all about it'. She refuses, or gives a one sentence reply, in an off-hand manner. 'Well, you're a nice one; we've waited up for you while you've been enjoying yourself, and now you're like a bear with a sore head.'

The theatre, the cinema, the novel—even where they do no more than correspond with the romantic idealization of the adolescent—are likely to seem more real to him than audience or travelling companion. The adolescent is not able to recover and discover, to order, the distinction between the actual and the desired.

Feeling has been aroused to an extent which he is unable to allow in ordinary every day life, and it remains for a while tender and sensitive to any probing. There is bound to be irritation at anything that threatens to break the spell.

Life for the adolescent is, in two opposite ways, very much like the theatre. He wants to be left alone to take it in for himself, to watch unobserved, to see how things really do go in an adult world. He also wants it to be highly charged, vivid, intense. He is asking questions, and these are his two ways of doing so. Thus his friendships are either dramatic affairs or detached affairs. He is either on the stage or in the audience but not outside the theatre if he can help it. He exaggerates, arranges, re-arranges, criticises, with complete disregard for the fact that outside his theatre are the buses and trams and butchers and bakers: *and parents and teachers.*

Jane at an earlier age would have rushed in with an account of her enjoyment. But she would not then have been aware of the deeper (value) issues, and now she feels them vaguely and without adequate understanding. Something has to be digested, made her own, before it can be shared.

Thought and Feeling

This explains so much of what is called selfishness. Probably Jane had 'thought' to tell the others all about it when she got home. So might the hungry beggar have 'thought' to share a promised crust. Nature upsets the best laid plans and schemes, especially those of adolescence, which viewed from one angle is a period of planning and scheming. The plans of the adolescent are largely of the thinking, protective, safety-seeking variety. His feeling on the other hand is the habitual feeling of the child and is not yet regularly and painlessly modified by thought. Because it is habitual in that unmodified state, it wins easily over the thoughts which are still partially external to it.

The older person is easily enough tempted to ask questions of the adolescent, and so touch his feeling at the very time when he is engaged in protecting it or experimenting with it, and at the very time when he is himself questioning all things with his new found instrument, thought. It is not surprising that adolescents are so often dumb, or surly, or flippant to their elders.

The adolescent is asking questions. What are they about? Love: 'She loves me, she loves me not?' Strength: 'I can, I can't?' The world: 'Is it friendly or not?' The future: 'How shall I earn my living?' *Solvitur ambulando*. But the adolescent doesn't know that either.

Adolescence is a-questioning. Nobody should try to answer the questions, for they are not answerable in words. Elders should not prod the adolescent with questions, for then they are forcing his feeling and his thinking to unholy union.

The Adult and the Adolescent

But they do ask. And, in effect, this is what they ask. 'Are you being a credit to me?' 'Tell me, are you up to average? If not, why not?' Not every parent or teacher remembers the simple fact of statistics that a curve depicting an average is as certainly determined by those cases which lie below it as by those which lie above. Anyhow, no certain answers can be given either to or by the adolescent. It is not an answering time but a questioning time, and must be accepted as such. There is no way of



A Children's Orchestra in a Californian School

learning which excludes experiment and the making of mistakes. Nor can the conduct of one person be measured by the footrule of another.

The laws of the Clan are not those of the State. The adolescent is moving forward from loyalty to his clan which was visible, at hand (a simple matter of feeling), to loyalty to something less visible, more ideal (involving thought and creativity). He is passing from a one-time self regarding but a present selfless attachment to that which is seen, through a self regarding attachment to that which is unseen on to true selflessness, and he is questioning whether the laws of the seen world have any sort of relation to the laws of the unseen. He must be forgiven if the neutrality he maintains is in many respects an armed neutrality, and if he sometimes acts desperately when very seriously interfered with. There is nothing so valued by the puzzled adolescent as friendly non-interference on the part of an elder person who is known to be 'standing by'. He cannot afford to be robbed of self in the name of assistance. He has an urge to power. Nor does he wish to be finally abandoned. He has a feeling of weakness. This is how he is taught; by being taut enough. Stretching is enjoyable but not being stretched. Exaggeration and extreme can be trusted to give way to *via media*. The attempt to reach ends immediately in thought will be modified into an enjoyment of means, and the employment of thought as the mean between feeling and action, instead of as an end in itself. The adolescent will 'come down to earth' by gradually recognizing his mind as no more than a mode or means of expression, just as in the pre-adolescent period he had learned to recognize his body as such. He will be happier when the two are not in conflict, rendering full personal response through body-mind impossible.

It is illuminating to think of a person's capacity for response to the whole facts of any situation as his 'responsibility'. 'Fear of responsibility' then appears to be fear of not being sufficiently a self to be able to leave it to circumstances to elicit an adequate *unconscious* response. The external conditions are usually called the responsibility. The adolescent is

often twitted with having a fear of the burden of responsibility as if he were wrong to fear a burden, twitted by those who have, by their authoritarianism or ill-timed interference, delayed (if not ruined) his chances of being himself in his responses through mind (thought) and body, that is—of being an individual.

The adolescent is something of a child in his inability to 'be' and express his being in 'having' and 'doing'. The small child derives his sense of being largely from his material possessions and physical prowess; and the adolescent derives his from his thoughts and thought-manipulation. He will argue for the sake of arguing. His dependence is that of something not yet truly individual. He is bound at times to be an individualist—that unpleasant parody of individuality—in his premature attempts at self expression. His chances of expressing himself with integrity through a coalition ministry of mind and body not secretly in opposition are impaired by the parent or teacher who questions him about what touches him intimately, or answers his questions instead of encouraging him to feel his way through. He has to select and digest and also let go. He will find it hard to let go and can easily be tantalized into gripping more firmly that which, having been digested and having yielded its quota to his experiencing self, should not any longer be held.

Sympathetic indifference, impersonal love of the adolescent as an object and not as part of the lover is what he thrives upon. For then he is thrown back to himself and compelled to accept the truth that what is external is secondary to what is internal, that true personal creative life will free him from the sting of criticism or failure being, as it is, elevated self protection; that safety lies in contact rather than separateness. So he comes to accept the common humanity which he shares with his fellows and individuates out of that rather than by denial of it.

The dictionary which calls adolescence a 'process' adds: 'In Physical Geography. Advancing towards a full adjustment of slopes to existing base levels'.

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THE FETTERS OF FEAR

E. A. HAMILTON-PEARSON

THE child's natural attitude of mind towards the external world is a boundless curiosity which urgently wants to know, and an endless experimenting which gives experience. The child is learning how to live through its own experience. To such a state of mind, fear is quite as alien and potentially destructive as the cuckoo's egg in the foster's nest, yet in one form or another it is the commonest symptom for which parents seek advice on behalf of their children—a symptom which need not exist to the extent to which it undoubtedly does exist, if its nature and causes were more generally appreciated.

There is one manifestation of fear which could be called an asset. This is the immense quickening up of the thought processes and the alert tension of the body which appear at the moment of sudden danger and facilitate the apprehension and instantaneous execution of the action which will circumvent the danger. The illogical apprehensions which are ordinarily called fear—of the dark, of particular forms of accident—are the results of some wrong attitude to life educated into the child by its environment and operating through imagination. Although the fear is of something which has, and often could have, no existence in reality, it is none the less a crippling and dangerous symptom—crippling in that it limits a child's actual experience of life, and dangerous because one fear of this nature tends to create others and so prepare the way for a definite neurosis.

It is impossible in a short article to discuss all the environmental factors likely to create fear in a child. They are too numerous and individual to permit of more than a general discussion under broad headings; but fortunately in practice these are sufficiently comprehensive to give a basis for the understanding of practically every individual case. For a variety

of quite obvious reasons, childhood is the period in the life of the average individual during which suggestion acts most strongly, and practical investigation shows that in the largest number of cases fear is induced by suggestion. Just as there are a variety of reasons why suggestion should act strongly on the child mind, so there are a variety of ways in which it can act.

Deliberate Suggestion of a Specific Fear

Threats of this kind are made because the terror they arouse forms an easy, instantaneous method of ensuring obedience or quelling a threatened storm, and no thought is given to the force with which they impinge upon a mind unable to gauge their practicability or their after-effects. Those vague but menacing demons of the nursery, still so often conjured up as attending on all unclassified forms of 'naughtiness', give rise to recurring infantile apprehensions. These apprehensions very often develop by association into forms of fear difficult to treat, because they have no basis in real experience. The formless bogey man often takes shape to childish conscience in some dimly seen object in a dark room and gives rise to that form of fear of the dark in which the child knows only that it is afraid but has no idea what it fears. To threaten to send a child to school as a form of punishment is to create an attitude to school which has ruined the educational prospects of hundreds of children. As a result, the child tends to create for itself a school situation, which justifies its apprehensions and intensifies its fears. To threaten a child with removal in the doctor's black bag is to create an atmosphere of terror round one who should appear as a friend.

The Abuse of Emotional Attachments

Harmful as is the form of threat illustrated above in its immediate effect and potential

results, still, it is not so dangerous as a more common form which makes use of the intimate emotional attachment of child to parent or guardian. Its immediate effect is to shatter a child's self-confidence completely, and induce a state of general apprehension which quickly becomes a severe degree of anxiety neurosis. Its ultimate effect in the majority of cases is to change the child's trust and respect to mistrust and suspicion. The following case illustrates clearly the type of threat and its effects. A boy of ten suffered from an anxiety neurosis of such severity that his sanity was in question. He would not let his mother out of his sight; if he had to go to school he would question her repeatedly as to her intended movements, and he would only leave her if she promised to be at home when he returned. Frequently he rushed from school to assure himself that she was there, and at night he kept calling out to her and going into her room for the same reason. Latterly he treated her with extreme suspicion and was beginning to hit and black-guard her from time to time.

The emotional tension of the situation, coupled with her inability to acknowledge to herself how it had arisen or to cope with it, were creating a neurosis in the mother which would eventually find outlet on the boy. The boy himself, of average intelligence and physically healthy, was in a state of agitation which obtruded itself even at moments of deep interest in other things.

Investigation showed that some years previously, the mother had frequently threatened to leave the home for good if the boy did not modify some course of action which she considered naughty. On one occasion, after a particularly violent utterance of the threat, the mother was unexpectedly called away to spend the night with a sick relative, and did not think of leaving any explanation for the child. With her threat fresh in his mind, the boy returned from school to an empty house. At that moment, the thing that he had been taught to fear became true—for him: he had driven his mother from home. A realization of this intensity engenders a state of remorse which is deaf to reasonable explanations, shatters self-confidence and confidence in others, and induces the persistent fear which was so marked in this

case. The harm to the child happens in a relatively short space of time: the undoing of the harmful results very often means years of patient work.

We regard blackmail as one of the very worst crimes it is possible to commit. Yet this class of threat is a form of moral blackmail, for it makes use of the lack of experience and immaturity of mind which cannot assess the threat at its true value, and act accordingly. To the child's understanding, such a threat is disastrously real and likely to be carried out: it is the reality attributed to it which makes it such a potent weapon.

Fears Suggested as Protection from Inexperience

Anything which limits a child's opportunities of buying its own experience on its own level is a potential cause of fear. The most frequent cause of limitation is some form of fear suggestion made by an adult with the object of protecting the child from its own inexperience. Some form of protection is essential in any sane scheme of upbringing; but it is equally essential that the barriers imposed should gradually extend with increasing age. To inculcate fear in order to prevent lack of experience leading a child into danger or mischief is merely to perpetuate that inexperience. Anything—for example, fear—tending to limit experience along specific lines, blocks the growth of knowledge and the development of character along those lines. Fear of this nature is never so violent, overwhelming or destructive as that which arises from the misuse of intimate emotion; but the very fact of its existence indicates the possibility of some form of neurosis developing.

The paralysing effect of direct fear suggestions of the type 'He could not do that: he would be afraid,' or 'He could not go out alone because a dog might scare him', are understood too generally to require elaboration. What apparently is not so generally understood is that there are two kinds of environment which breed this limiting form of fear prolifically.

In the one, the adults, rather vain of the uniqueness of their own pet fears, discuss them fully before the child without considering what effect this may have on him. Children quite

normally pick up, by involuntary imitation of the adults around them, whole facets of character, tricks and turns of speech, physical mannerisms, and so on. In a similar way the fears spoken of by the adult are assimilated by the child, and because they have no starting point in actual experience are very difficult to eradicate. Parents who see fears similar to their own developing in their children would be more just if they blamed their own foolishly unguarded tongues than, as is their frequent practice, a blind heredity.

The other environment is that in which fears and timidities are regarded, and often openly praised, as being evidence of a highly sensitive nature. It can be said quite dogmatically that sensitivity shows itself in quite other ways: for example, in appreciation of the beauty of line or colour or sound. If fear exists, it argues one thing and one thing only, that there is or has been something wrong in the method of upbringing. Rather than be proud of a timorous child, those responsible for the upbringing should realize each apprehension as the lasting trace of a mistake, a mistake which need never have arisen if the methods employed had been right, if every endeavour had been made to retain for the child its natural curiosity and desire to experiment, if its imagination had been properly fed and stimulated and its growing aptitudes given material for their exercise and scope for their growth.

Disciplined Imagination

It must be recognized that imagination is not an alien activity which must be worked against and as far as possible eradicated, as is so freely held at present, but a normal inherent quality which must be properly fed and actively used. In the developing mind disciplined imagination has a very important rôle to play. Children do not think in abstractions: their thought is factual, and imagination leads up to and enriches the capacity for abstract thinking which comes with a more developed intelligence. In order that a child may learn to use its imagination, suitable means for creative expression must be provided. Otherwise imagination expends its force uselessly in improvident day dreaming and in the terrors and apprehensions which so often arise out of the vividly pictured

incidents of the daydream. Many of the terrors for whose existence the adult can find no cause, especially those which show themselves in the pre-sleep period, arise in this way. Familiar objects seen in a dimly-lit bedroom can stimulate an imaginative child's phantasy to such an intense activity that they become animate shapes charged with many unpleasant possibilities.

In fact, the mental images created in a child's mind often become more real than material objects. Consequently, logical explanations are more often than not useless. If a child is to be safeguarded, as far as is humanly possible, against the forms of fear belonging to this category, it must be taught to use, and given full scope for the exercise of, its imagination. Even if from time to time it fails to prevent the emergence of such a form of fear, a controlled imagination is the finest therapeutic agent in the treatment of fear.

Discipline, Fear and Freedom

One result to be aimed at in the upbringing of any child is to provide conditions which will allow it to build up a strong, well balanced confidence in itself. Such confidence implies, among other things, the capacity for making decisions and taking responsibility for action, for knowing when to seek advice from someone more experienced, for being able to make mistakes and learn from them, and for the possession of a degree of self-discipline sufficient to control desires and impulses when necessary. It can arise only out of a personal knowledge of strength and weakness gained through practical experience in conditioned circumstances of gradually increasing complexity. If environmental conditions give the child no opportunity for building confidence, or should conditions of a nature likely to sap its foundations intervene, a stultifying fear is likely to develop in a greater or lesser degree. It shows itself in fluctuating decisions, in indecision in the face of known circumstances which have varied even slightly from their normal, and in those ceaseless timidities about the future which make life nothing but an endless series of apprehensions.

The most usual environmental factor involved in the creation of this unconfident

attitude to life is the kind of discipline a child encounters during its early experience. Discipline which is harsh, rigid and unvarying in its limitations operates through fear and maintains its dominion by fear. It governs by a series of hard and fast rules and penalties which prevent the child from taking responsibility. Such an environment will inevitably create fear of the consequences of initiative. This is probably one of the most destructive forms of fear because it cripples the individual when he is in active competition with his fellows in the pursuit of a career or a livelihood. Discipline which is capricious, which praises an action one minute and punishes a similar action the next, is equally successful in creating an unconfident attitude to life. A further form of discipline which is important because of its consequences is that in which every action is conditioned by whether it will please or displease someone or other. It forces on to a child wrong standards for judging its behaviour and decisions, and saps initiative. The victims of this form of upbringing live in constant fear of the opinions of others, and nothing can be more stultifying or conducive to neurosis.

Any environment which allows a child too great freedom of action also creates lack of confidence, but in another way. Children in such an atmosphere are faced with the necessity for making decisions for which they have neither the mental equipment nor the material experience. Failure is the most frequent result of actions decided upon under such circumstances. A succession of failures tends to make the child distrust its own judgment and this in turn creates a fear and avoidance of situations likely to call for personal decision: a poor equipment for facing the responsibilities of adult life.

It will be clear, therefore, that the quality of discipline a child encounters determines the range and nature of its experience and defines the quality of confidence it is likely to build. Some form of discipline is essential, but if the results are to be good it must never be arbitrarily instituted solely for the convenience of parents or guardians, or with the object of moulding the child to some preconceived form.

Sensible discipline is a well thought out scheme which defines the limits of the area of complete freedom in which the child is free to make its own decisions and buy its own experience, and gradually extends the limits in accordance with increasing age and capacity.

Health and Fear

It must never be forgotten that fear may, and frequently does, result from an impaired state of physical health. The type of illness responsible in these cases is seldom serious. Most often it is some metabolic disorder or toxic absorption occurring in a previously healthy child. Malaise of this nature leads to a lowering of mental activity which prevents the sufferer from maintaining the standard of work or play to which it was previously accustomed. The child, unable to account for its inability to do even with effort what was formerly comparatively easy, tends to lose confidence and create in itself a fear of results. The condition is frequently intensified by the failure of those in authority to recognize the real cause of the child's inability to maintain its previous standard. Interpreting the cause of the condition as 'laziness', 'lack of concentration', etc., something presumably within the child's control, pressure, which often does permanent harm, is applied when medical treatment is what is really required. In every case of this kind, where there has been a sudden drop in the quality of work or a sudden loss of confidence, a thorough medical examination should be carried out before other remedial measures are instituted.

Important as it is, the treatment of fear is too individual to be dealt with except at length. What is more important is that there should be a wider understanding of the broad principles of the causation of fear. Such an understanding may lead to more general attempts to create conditions which will allow children to retain their native curiosity towards life and the circumstances of life, and provide the means for them to build their confidence and character firmly. In circumstances which provide for this result fear in any serious sense cannot exist.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS NEW AND OLD— AND HOW TO CHOOSE THEM

CELANDINE KENNINGTON

WHAT is the secret of a really good and popular children's book? It is hard to analyse the qualities which make for success, but at any rate the first essential in writing a children's book is to write for children. There are a good many books with interesting plots and attractive pictures which are tiresome to read aloud because they have a whole lot of frills and asides put in, either because the author has an eye to the grown-ups, or because he does not know how to write for children.

There are some very obvious maxims, but there are a great many authors of children's books who are apparently unaware of them. The first is—write straightforwardly. Quite apart from unnecessary complications in the story itself, you should avoid sentences with parentheses and queer grammatical constructions. The second is—beware of allusions and implications. It is very difficult to get a child to think about anything but the matter in hand: he wants to concentrate hard on the story (which seems tremendously real to him) and he does not want to recall other books or people. Implications are still more difficult than allusions: even Kipling offends in this respect. *Puck of Pook's Hill* and *Rewards and Fairies* are, in places, very difficult reading for children.

For instance, the story called *Dymchurch Flit* is almost impossible for a child to tackle. Kipling goes flipping along like a stone skimming over the water, playing ducks and drakes with his ideas. I read it aloud this spring to a very keen listener, and I was left gasping and floundering, struggling to find out exactly what Kipling

meant, trying to explain it to the child and to give good reasons for thinking that the author meant what I said he did. It was a very exciting and exhausting mixture of story-telling and a guessing game; but it was not a successful example of reading aloud to children.

This year there is the usual Christmas spate of Gift Books for children of all ages. Many of them are excellent; but others fall very far short of my two maxims for writers of children's books. For instance, I find *Dashenka—The Life of a Puppy* very upsetting because it is so involved. It has beautiful photographs and amusing

drawings; but this sort of thing happens: 'When Dashenka really got down to it (as a matter of fact she didn't get down to it, she rolled her sleeves up) (more strictly speaking, she didn't even roll her sleeves up, she only, as it were, spat on her hands)' and so on. Children do not want to be side-tracked with that sort of verbal complication: they want to know what the puppy really did.



Woodcut by a pupil in an Austrian State School

On the other hand, *Seek There*, by Frank Wallace, is an example of good straightforward story-telling. It begins with an excellent and natural conversation between two children in a loft. It gives the children, the exciting place they are in, the jolly things they are doing and the part of the world they live in, all crisp and clear like a view in the 'finder' of a camera. And the rest of the book is worthy of the start.

Style is of the utmost importance, and one can take as one's standard such classics as Mrs. Molesworth's *Us* and Louisa M. Alcott's books. Mrs. Molesworth's style is always impeccable, though her subject matter is sometimes open to question. Louisa M. Alcott is near perfection: take the description of Daisy being given her cooking stove and her first cooking lesson in *Little Men*, and you will see what I mean.

Magic and Fairy Books

There is a bewildering choice of books of all types, and several outstanding successes among the books about magic. *The Top of the Mountain* by Ella Monckton, is a treasure: it is so ordinary and earthy as well as magical. There are rabbits and gypsies as well as witches and goblins, and a great sense of personal adventure runs through it all. The lovely woodcuts by their own merit give a romantic quality to the landscape.

It is good to have a book of English fairy tales (in *Fairies and Enchanters*), and to find a story called *The Hairy Boggart* beginning: 'Once upon a time in Mumby in Lincolnshire . . .'. It gives a new interest to a rather dreary countryside. Amabel Williams-Ellis has sorted these tales out from various collections and re-written them, and she has made a very jolly and lively job of it. But some of the illustrations are poor.

In *The Amber Gate*, Kitty Barne tells stories of real life heroes to a little girl and her grandfather who ride backwards and forwards through the air on a magic arm-chair. Though this book has merit, the two worlds do not join up very well, and I doubt whether it would appeal to children.

Animal Books

Books about wild animals that really remain animals are apt to be terribly sad: most of the stories in *Lives of the Hunted* are almost un-

bearable; but in *Wild Life Stories*, Maribel Edwin has deliberately chosen happy endings and has skilfully invented dramatic adventures that do not involve the death of the hero. The younger children generally prefer animal stories where the creatures behave like humans, and they do not boggle at hedgehogs who take in washing and mice who sweep floors, as in the enchanting Beatrix Potter books. *Taddy Tadpole* is a clever compromise. Taddy is just the merry kind of fellow a tadpole *would* be, but he remains very much a tadpole and the whole setting shows careful observation and knowledge of natural history.

Guides to Knowledge

There are many and various books on science, history and geography among the new books for the young. Foremost among them are *The Book of Scientific Discovery*, by D. M. Turner, and M. Ilin's *100,000 Whys*. The first is an excellent and interesting summary of the growth of scientific knowledge which will appeal to older boys and girls, and the second is suggested by typical children's questions. It deals satisfactorily with a lot of problems: what happens when logs burn, when water freezes, when potatoes are baked? The style is simple, and Ilin is in real sympathy with the wonder and mystery held for children by natural happenings.

The Carpenter's Tool Chest, by Thomas Hibben, is first class for older children: it links prehistoric man with the craftsman of to-day, and it is full of interesting pictures showing the development of hammers and axes, etc., from the crude implements of the stone age.

Books telling children how to do things are becoming much less dull and far more explicit. *Let's Do a Play*, by Rodney Bennett, is a good example. You are made to feel on very personal terms with the author, who is genial and witty as well as extremely practical. He deals with every aspect of play production, and has advice for every type of would-be actor. Plays for children used to be very difficult to find; but Nelsons have made a special feature of them, and the theatrical season should therefore be a great success.

There are, in fact, any number of really good new books for children of all ages and all dispositions; but as usual they need to be chosen carefully and with understanding of both books and children.

TOYS AND THE CHILD'S DEVELOPMENT

M. COTTER-LUDBY

EVERY mother knows that food is of primary importance to her children. Dietetic laws and diet food sheets are recognized by physician, parent and nurse as playing a fundamental part in the care of the young child. Not only has it long been recognized that over-feeding is productive of illnesses as serious as those caused by under-feeding, but that foodstuffs proper and wholesome for one age can actually become harmful to the body at another age. Food for the body forms the material of growth, but few people realize that the mind is also a living organism whose growth is determined by the material that it is given.

Tools of Education

To-day a great deal of interest and thought is being given to education, and it is fully recognized that upon the form and content of education in the schools depends the healthy and successful development of the adolescent and adult. What is not realized, however, is that education begins from the day of birth, and that toys, books and pictures are the tools of education of the nursery child.

Children's play is vital. The non-English adult is apt to use the word 'games' as applied to ludo or snap, and the word 'sport' for all serious team exercises. In England we think differently, and there is perhaps no activity which has more significance than our 'games'—the cricket, football, or lacrosse that we play in later childhood, adolescence or adulthood. For the benefit of the whole of education it is essential that children's play should be recognized as coming under this heading. A child, except in moments of buffoonery, is hardly capable of frivolity in play. Play is to him the absorbing, vital activity of his days, and the fitness and adequacy with which his toys match his needs is not merely comparable to, but as important as, the adjustment of the schoolboy's or adult's tools of play—his tennis racket, cricket bat and golf clubs.

Toys are necessary to a child. They may be few, they may be rudimentary, but if the child is to develop a healthy mind, the scaffolding for the mind's growth must be there. This scaffolding is provided by toys and books, with the opportunities they give for emotional experience and the testing of the child's own powers.

Over-feeding, over-clothing, over-protection from wind and air produce a flabby and inert body. The same is most emphatically true of the child's mind.

Few sights are more depressing than that of the small child of rich parents and well-to-do aunts and uncles, wandering disconsolately round a nursery packed with toys, regarding them with a weary air and the feeling of almost sickening suffocation with which the average adult reacts to a continental *carte des viandes*. Before such incredibly complicated and varied richness the mind wilts and retreats into peevishness.

Amongst ordinary people, nursery toys generally come haphazard out of Christmas and birthday gifts, and it is the perpetual wonder of parents that the marvellous productions of wealthy Uncle Harold so often meet the fate of complete ignominy beside the woolly rabbit or hand-made wooden toy from impecunious Aunt Mary and Uncle John.

What Toys Shall We Give?

Since a child has his whole environment to learn, to recognize and know, and toys are the instruments that aid him in this task, what then should we give him?

Children at birth possess their senses but have everything to learn about the nature of the objects presented to them by these senses. From birth to nine months a child will find endless satisfaction in bright colours, in bright moving objects and in soft woolly bundles of different shapes and sizes. A child of this



Woodcut by a pupil in an Austrian State School

age is absorbed in the experience of its senses and should be given adequate material for experiment in sensation. Toys of varied shapes should follow the first stage of soft indiscriminate woolly ones. Toys with hard and soft surfaces should then be introduced; but all hard toys should have rounded edges so that no harm can be done. As soon as he can crawl about, the child should also be given toys of smooth and sticky composition. In the early stages a reel attached to a string, or a small saucepan which he can put things into and turn them out of and with which he can bang, gives him opportunities for feeling omnipotent in his environment.

As soon as the child can stagger about, he should be given toys that he can pull behind him on the floor, rings that fit on a peg, diamonds, squares, all kinds of different shapes through which a large wire or a peg will go, or a suitable edition of one of the many types of toys now made that fit together with pegs and holes and then can be pulled along the ground. Bricks are important and should be big—two-inch cubes for children of one to two, and large plywood or cork bricks for older children. At three or four, if there is space in the nursery, it should be possible to build with the bricks a house inside which the child can get.

In the early years a child's imagination is indistinguishable from his reason, and this fact should always be remembered. Dolls for young children should be rag, and not china: they should have *as little realistic expression as possible*. The old rag doll is infinitely healthier to the mind than the modern china creation. The rag doll can be kicked and cuddled, loved and hated as its owner fancies: it can be sad, happy, cross and spiteful, welcoming or indifferent without any insult to its permanent expression. For this reason the teddy bear is a constant favourite: there is an engaging ingenuousness about its expression and indefiniteness about its form which apparently makes it able to respond to the child's ideas.

Toys the Child can Understand

The acquisition of manual dexterity is an important part of the self-education of childhood, and cannot begin too early. The Montessori pyramid of bricks, the fitting Russian dolls and many other wholes composed of fitting parts are suitable and obtainable almost everywhere. *A child should never be given a*

toy the workings of which he cannot understand. The rolling of a ball is a delight because the child can cause it himself, just as he can make a toy train move or drag a line of 'chained' ducks along the floor. These form his world and he is master of them. But the clockwork beetle or the wound-up clockwork figure which are the delight of the adults, are a torment to a child because he cannot understand them, and their inexplicable behaviour is mainly alarming.

Trains are excellent, but they should progress with the understanding of the child, and clockwork trains, steam trains, electric trains should only be given to those children who are old enough to master the way they work. Then they play the same part as the primitive train plays for the small child: they give him mastery over his environment and compensate for his insignificance and helplessness elsewhere.

Finally, every child exults in miniature representation of the life he sees round him. Small pots and pans, small washing machines, ironing boards and mangles, tea services, dinner services, carpentry tools and boot-polishing outfits, brushes, dustpans and brooms should form part of every child's equipment. They must be well made and serviceable: every child detests the flimsy toy. Cooking pots must be made actually to stand the heat of cooking, the mangle must really mangle and the dustpan and



*Reproduced by courtesy of
Paul & Marjorie Abbott*

brush actually sweep up real crumbs.

Paints, paint boxes, paper, pencil, crayons, chalks, scissors and string are indispensable to every nursery. Powder colours are better than paint boxes for children under eight, and large sheets of paper pinned on the wall are better than painting books. The *Essel* crayons are a satisfactory form of dry colour, and ordinary blackboard surfaces such as are used in infant schools give the child continual delight. Water is a real toy in childhood, and water and sand, water and clay, water and flour, give opportunity for exploring the possibilities of mess.

Every child should have sensible clothes in which to play—clothes that do not dirty easily, that reject water and can be quickly laundered. Some shiny, uncrushable cotton materials fulfil these requirements fairly adequately when they are made in simple shapes and of plain colours, while the addition of strong soft rubber aprons of plain useful shapes makes the child feel secure and happy in its play.

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